The Education Digest

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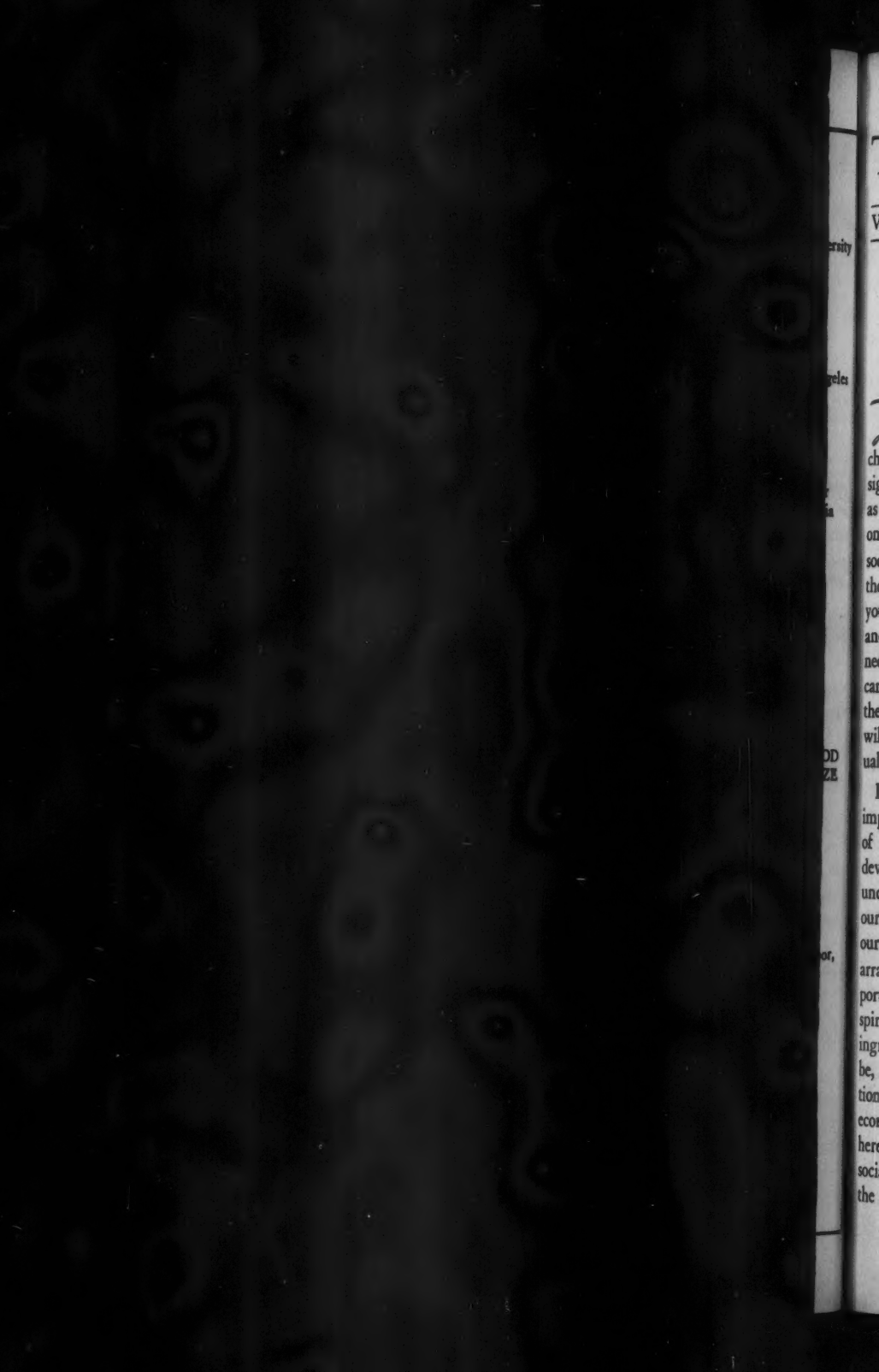

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

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Volume IX | NOVEMBER, 1943 | Number 3

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE SCHOOLS IN A POSTWAR SOCIAL ORDER

NEWTON EDWARDS

In the Elementary School Journal

THE postwar social order will be characterized by planning and design; the citizen will be required, as never before, to pass judgment on important matters of public and social policy. The schools will face the responsibility of cultivating in youth the knowledge, the insights, and the motivations which they will need to resolve important issues they cannot avoid. In no small measure the center of interest in education will need to shift from the individual to society.

In the postwar world the most important single social obligation of American education will be the development in youth of a critical understanding of the social order, of our social design, of the workings of our economic, social, and political arrangements. It is scarcely less important that we develop in youth a spirit of social invention, the willingness to experiment boldly, if need be, in the whole area of social relationships, whether of government, economy, or ethics. The assumption here is, of course, that youth will be socialized in terms of core values, the great imperatives of a democratic society and that the experimentation will be carried forward within the framework of democratic principles.

Education, of course, is also concerned with enduring values; the school always faces the task of transmitting honestly and without prejudice, as far as may be, those accumulations of ideas, knowledge, values, attitudes, and techniques that constitute the capital of human experience. So far back as the record goes, man has always been man. His power to think, or not to think, is the same today as yesterday; his basic emotional drives have remained unchanged. And the problems of human living have remained basically the same wherever man has taken up his habitat. The problem of freedom under governmen was old before the first Pharoah reigned, and women were dissatisfied with their husbands long before Hollywood. The problem of social justice is as old as the oft-quoted question of Cain; the hope of attaining the four freedoms has sprung eternal in the human breast. We must not suppose that ours is

the first generation that has faced the necessity of applying courage and intelligence to the solution of the problems of human living, nor must we confuse our superior technology with superior wisdom. The capital of human experience is still the coin of the realm; to devaluate it too much may lead to intellectual bankruptcy.

Ours is an age that tends to overrate recent and contemporary experience, and in the postwar period we shall have to be on our guard lest we confine our attention too exclusively to the minutes of the last meeting. As our world whirls forward from one cataclysm to another; as the pattern of old institutions is disrupted; as old social institutions lose or enlarge their functions (and in either event call for reconstruction); as change, insecurity, tension, and oftentimes frustration intrude themselves into the world of primary social relationships, we tend to grasp whatever is closest at hand in order to maintain our equilibrium and are little likely to have the patience or the inclination to chart our course of action in terms of some carefully worked out, over-all system of principles.

However much the school may be a hostage to the past, it also has its responsibilities to the present and its obligations to the future. The demands of scholarship are not imperious in the domain of general education; the requirements of the changing nature of society are of equal or greater importance. It is not too much to say that a technological revolution is forcing education to shift somewhat its center of interest from the needs of the individual to the requirements of society. The implications of such a change in emphasis are many and significant. In the working-out of the new orientation, it appears that the program will have to be so shaped as to meet at least three major requirements of social reality.

The first of these requirements is the socialization of youth in terms of the basic assumptions of democracy. The school should serve as a means of insuring social stability, of maintaining political and social cohesion, of implementing the core values of society. If we really hope that democracy may become the prevailing ideology in the world, we shall have to be less timid in its defense, more searching in our effort to grasp its inner meanings, and more insistent in spelling it out in the lives of men. In our program of social education we can scarcely side-step the responsibility of identifying and making use of those experiences which will develop an understanding of, and an emotional attachment to, the basic assumptions of democracy. Moreover we shall have to provide the experiences that will develop the attitudes, the motivations, the sympathies, the sensitivities, and the drives essential to democratic living.

Just here we encounter a grave danger. Our eagerness to develop in youth an emotional attachment to democratic ideas and our discontent with the present curriculum may lead us to do as Germany has done —to discount overly much the intellectual content of education.

A second requirement of social reality is that the oncoming generation become skilled in the processes of democratic action. The techniques and processes of democratic living embrace freedom of thought and communication in all their forms, tolerance of the views of others, discussion as an instrument of enlightenment, and the right of individuals to participate in the formation of policies that effect them directly. Men must learn to give and take, to counsel together, to accept defeat, to compromise, and to abide by majority opinion. These processes youth must learn if they are to assume responsibility for the direction of a democratic society. But, here again, we must not fall into the error of supposing that we can substitute learning the ways of democracy for the intellectual content of education.

With the third requirement of social reality, it seems to me, we are approaching the crux of the matter. Stated simply, this requirement is that youth be equipped with the will and the breadth and precision of knowledge required of them to play their part in shaping broad public and social policy. It will not be enough to develop loyalties to the principles of democracy or skill in the processes of democratic behavior. The citizen must be informed. As a matter of fact, the assumptions and the processes of democracy are of little importance unless they are made manifest in the institutions of the people. The fundamental assumptions of democracy and many of its processes are enduring, but its institutional forms are subject to change and modification. For the moment, the exigencies of war have pushed into the background many of the problems which must be faced in the postwar period. The agenda of democracy will be crowded with matters of serious import—of the peace, of international cooperation, of reconstruction of the economic order. The most important single social obligation of the American educational system will be to cultivate in youth that degree of understanding of the workings of our economic and social arrangements to enable them to make wise decisions with respect to matters of public and social policy.

[*Newton Edwards is Professor of Education at the University of Chicago. Reported from the* Elementary School Journal, *XLIV (September, 1943), 15-21.*]

ESSENTIAL MATHEMATICS FOR MINIMUM ARMY NEEDS

In the Mathematics Teacher

THAT every enlisted man in the Army has vital need for mathematics is no longer open to question. This fact was strongly indicated in the statement of an earlier committee on mathematics for inductees which was based on analyses of a large sample of Army and Navy manuals. The fact of essential mathematical needs has been even more certainly established by the present committee on mathematics of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, which, working with the cooperation of the Civilian Pre-Induction Training Branch of the Army Service Forces and the U. S. Office of Education, herewith presents its report.

The procedure employed by the present committee was to confer with Army officers directly in charge of training enlisted men and to observe the basic training process itself during the first 13 weeks of the inductee's Army life. To systematize both interviews and observations, a check list of 142 items was employed. This check list, carefully prepared by the committee, had the benefit of criticism from more than 20 Army training officers stationed in the Washington area. It was then tried out in the original and in a revised form with a dozen training officers in nearby camps. In its final form, its contents provided the basis for informal conferences with another group of 96 training officers and for item-by-item checking by 178 officers who were serving as instructors in basic training in 74 different kinds of Army jobs in Replacement Training Centers and unit training centers in eight states, training 75 percent of the enlisted men in the Army.

The essential mathematics outlined here is that which is *actually needed* by nearly all men in their basic training. The purpose of the committee's investigation was to determine those items in mathematics which should make up the *minimum* equipment of the inductee. Every inductee might well have *more* than this minimum, but he *cannot have less* and meet successfully the demands of basic training.

So much for the first fact: the enlisted man has certain minimum mathematical needs. The second fact, equally important and equally certain, is that the typical inductee does not have the training in mathematics which he needs. When only one inductee out of four can select the correct answer from four suggested answers for, 5 is 20% of what number?; when only one in three can select the correct answer for, 7-5¾; and when only one in four can select the correct answer for, .32 ÷ .64; under these conditions it is clear that the inductee is ill prepared to cope with

the quantitative situations he will encounter in his basic training in the Army. It could be argued that these mathematical deficiencies are not new, that indeed many adults and high-school students have for years had limited proficiency in mathematics and that the war has served only to highlight the evils of a long-standing condition. It could be argued further that, had Army inductees been taught their mathematics in the elementary school and in junior high school as mathematics should be taught, the present situation would not be so critical, and the task of preparing inductees for Army service would be relatively easy. All these arguments can be conceded. At the same time, they do not lessen, rather they enhance the urgency of doing something positive and of doing it immediately.

The casual reader of this report can easily oversimplify the educational problem with respect to the needed program of instruction. He will certainly do so if he disregards the evidence and assumes that *his* students possess the minimum mathematical essentials here recommended; or if he thinks of the essentials listed purely in terms of mechanical, paper-and-pencil computation. Proficiency in computation is necessary, but it should not be mere mechanical proficiency. Much more than computational competence is called for.

On this last point the testimony of training officers is unequivocal. They say that many enlisted men, even those who seem to be able to obtain correct answers in abstract computation, are unable to *think* quantitatively. That is to say, they cannot use in practical situations even the limited skills they possess.

The implications of this charge (and it was universal) are unmistakable, and they cannot be disregarded. What is needed is a reorientation, a change of emphasis, in instruction. Computation has too often been stressed, and accurate, skilled thinking in concrete quantitative situations has been minimized. Many students have acquired tricks with numbers which have proved valueless under conditions of use. Meanwhile two aspects of mathematical learning have suffered, namely, (a) understanding and (*b*) experience in application. An inductee *understands* when he has acquired the meanings which give system, order, and logic to mathematics — when, for example, he knows the functions of the fundamental operations and knows when to use them and why they affect numbers as they do. He has had the requisite *experience in application* when his learning has included many occasions in which he has successfully put to use his mathematical training in situations which are significant to him. The boy who can quickly and accurately size up the quantitative aspects of concrete, practical situations and

employ the correct mathematical techniques has passed the test of mathematical sense; he has acquired what the Army (and civilian life) wants him to have.

The committee is not shirking a responsibility when it offers teachers no simple, mechanical method to determine when prospective inductees are mathematically ready for their tasks in the Army. There *is* no such simple mechanical method. The committee presents the specifications for the job. Beyond this point responsibility lies in the hands of school officials and teachers. Let the mathematics course be taught by persons who know mathematics, not alone in the technical sense, but in the sense of concrete, sensible, practical applications. Such teachers will be able to tell when their students have acquired the ideas and skills set out in the minimum list which follows.

A. Reading and Writing Arithmetical Symbols

1. *Whole numbers (to six digits).*—Serial numbers on identification tags and rifles contain as many as eight digits. Used in reading stock lists, equipment numbers, speedometer mileage, radio frequencies, blueprints.

2. *Common fractions (denominators of powers of 2 through 64; 3,5, 6, 10, and 12).*—Fractions with denominators in the ten-thousands are frequently used in map reading. Used in indicating parts of an hour, a mile; sizes of wrenches, bolts, nuts, drills; reading the carpenter's square.

3. *Decimal fractions (to three places).*—In machine work it is sometimes necessary to read micrometer calipers to ten-thousandths. Used in indicating specific gravity of batteries; setting up correct frequencies in kilocycles; expressing caliber of projectiles; measuring spark-plug gaps, valve clearances.

4. *Percents (to 100%).*—In certain instances percents less than 1% are used to indicate composition of metals and the proportions of chemicals in solutions. The fractional equivalents of the dozen or so commoner percents should be memorized. Used in indicating percent of men assigned to details, apportionment of pay, proportions of ingredients in mixtures such as insecticides.

B. Counting

5. *Counting by 1's, 2's, 5's, and 10's (to 500).*—Used in counting off in the squad and in infantry drill; counting automotive units; pacing for determining distances; cranking heavy tank engines; counting number of men for mess.

C. Operations with Whole Numbers

6. *Addition (columns of not more than five addends of three digits each, and shorter columns of not more than six digits).*—Stock, mess, and supply clerks need to add much longer columns and to add short columns of numbers of more than six digits. Used in determining daily mileage for reports, amount

of ammunition and materials consumed, total circuit resistance, total number of men.

7. *Subtraction (numbers of not more than six digits).* — Used in reading map grids; determining directions; computing distances; determining the age of parachutes and pneumatic equipment in order to check their safety.

8. *Multiplication (numbers of four digits by numbers of two digits).*— Calculation of total amount of rations, ammunition, and company supplies involves larger numbers. Used in finding distances when time and rate are given; keeping personal budgets; figuring costs; substituting in orientation formulas.

9. *Division (numbers of four digits divided by numbers of two digits).*—Division of numbers of six digits is used in dealing with radio frequencies; reduction of map scales; estimation of quantities of materials in concrete construction. Used in determining direction and elevation of sight; rationing of supplies and ammunition; changing units of measure, as from inches to feet.

D. Operations with Common Fractions
(Denominators limited as in 2 above)

10. *Addition.*—Used in determining over-all dimensions from blueprints; computing total demolition charges; calculating seam allowances.

11. *Subtraction.* — Used in blueprint reading; finding tap and die sizes; calculating depth of cut in machine work.

12. *Multiplication.*—Used in determining amounts of ingredients in mixtures; finding weight of castings; calculating total weight of rivets for repairs.

13. *Division.* — Used in solving electrical problems involving Ohm's Law; calculating tubing lay-outs; making switchboard installations.

E. Operations with Decimal Fractions
(Denominators limited as in 3 above)

14. *Addition.* — Used in finding total money value of rations (to thousandths of a cent); adding currents in legs of circuits.

15. *Subtraction.*—Used in determining mileage from speedometer readings; checking aircraft specifications; machine-shop work.

16. *Multiplication.*—Used in finding correct frequencies in electrical work; windage determination.

17. *Division.* — Used in making switchboard adjustments; determining costs; laying out rivet patterns.

F. Part-Whole Relationships, with common fractions, decimal fractions, and percents.

18. *Finding part of a quantity.*— Used in making pay deductions; determining amounts to be mixed in insecticides, in cooking, in mixing concrete; computing dial settings; finding part of supplies to be drawn; determining number of parachutes

to be kept packed in accordance with a fixed percentage.

19. *Finding what part one number is of another.*—Used in finding speeds when different-sized pulleys or gears are used, outputs of transformers; determining slopes in setting grade stakes, the portion of a company that qualifies in marksmanship.

20. *Finding a number, given a part and its relative size.*—Used in calculating amount of product in Army baking operations.

G. Ratio and Proportion

21. *Understanding basic idea.* — Used in statements of concrete mixtures, relative speeds and feeds, fuel mixtures.

22. *Solving problems.* — Used in finding scales in aerial photographs; calculating speeds when different sizes of pulleys or gears are used; figuring slopes.

H. Powers and Roots

23. *Finding powers (squares and cubes).*—Used in solving formulas.

24. *Finding squares and square roots from tables.*—Used in calculating sides of right triangles and diagonals of rectangles.

I. Graphs and Maps

25. *Understanding grids and scales.*—Knowledge of the fact that the numerator of a representative fraction (R.F.) is a distance on the map and that the denominator is the distance on the ground is necessary in map reading. Such scales as 1/20,000, 1/62,500, and 1 inch =1 mile are commonly used.

26. *Determining directions from a map.*—Used in determining direction of travel to reach an objective; orienting one's own position; determining direction in heavy gun fire.

27. *Interpreting maps and graphs.*—Used in discovering the location of artillery, the command post, hostile forces; determining the height of points on a terrain (from a map showing contour lines); scouting and reconnaissance; radio and signal communication.

28. *Making graphs and maps.*—The enlisted man is not commonly required to make maps and graphs, except for rough sketches, but experience in making them is essential to proper understanding.

J. Tables

29. *Reading from tables.*—Reading to the nearest tabulated figure is all that is usually required. Used in finding the angle of elevation for an artillery piece from firing tables; making corrections for windage; determining type of ammunition; finding strength of materials; fractional equivalents; converting measurements.

K. Formulas and Equations

30. *Understanding of simple symbolism of algebra, such* as a, K, a^3, b^3, $\sqrt{a}$, a_2, π.—Used in practically all branches of the armed services.

31. *Simple formulas to be memorized: area of circle, triangle, rectangle; volume of cylinder, rectangular solid; distance, rate and time.*—Less used are the formulas for area of a parallelogram and of a trape-

zoid, and for conversion of temperature readings between Fahrenheit and Centigrade.

32. *Substitution in simple formulas.*—Used in such formulas as those listed in 31 and others as:

$N=3/4$ A (demolition of a steel beam);

$\frac{1}{R_T}=\frac{1}{R_1}+\frac{1}{R_2}+\frac{1}{R_3}$ (total resistance of three conductors in parallel).

Besides these simple formulas, others of a greater degree of complexity are widely used in some branches of the service. For example, the demolition formula:

$N=R^3KC$ plus a percent of N depending on the size of N.

33. *Solution of simple equations, such as:—*

$3n=6$ $\qquad$ $2n-3=7$

$n+3=6$ $\qquad$ $2n+3=7$

$n-3=6$ $\qquad$ $\frac{n}{3}=6$

These equations usually result from substitutions in formulas.

L. Positive and Negative Numbers

34. *Symbolism and meaning.*—Used in indicating direction of flow of both alternating and direct current; machine-gun firing tables; angle of sight instruments; calculating data for range cards on machine guns; determining direction; designating storage-battery terminals.

M. Measurement, including understanding of basic units

35. *Length, weight, area, and volume.*—In many branches there is necessity for performing the fundamental operations with denominate numbers. Used in determining area of fire, storage-tank capacity, firing tensions, load limits; placing poles in field wire communications.

36. *Temperature (C and F), angles (degrees, minutes, and seconds), time (24-hour clock.)*—Temperature measurement is used in determining tension for a wire, condition of engines, condition of patients; angles are used in machine-shop work, machine-gun and mortar firing, map reading; determining the number of degrees of revolution of a rotating shaft. The Army uses the 24-hour clock.

37. *Metric system with simple equivalents.*—Used in medical measurements; radio repair; designating gun caliber, dispensary supplies.

38. *Measuring instruments.*—Compass is used in determining directions; tape and rule are used in measuring lengths; protractor and compass are used in map reading; transit is used in road building and communications construction; calipers and dividers are used in the machine shop; steel square and level are used in carpentry; scales are used in measurement of weight.

39. *Limits of accuracy or tolerances.*—These range from the precise measurements in the machine shop, through the tolerances found in adjusting weapons, to the fairly rough estimates of road overhead clearances. Used in measuring spark-plug and breaker-point gaps.

40. *Estimation.*—Load that a

bridge will bear, weight of a load on a truck, number of men in a group, height of aircraft, distance in scouting, range for firing, distance marched, speed of vehicles.

N. Geometric Concepts

41. *Point; straight, curved, horizontal, vertical, oblique, parallel, and perpendicular lines; angle; and slope.* — Used in technique of fire; simple mechanical drawing and blueprint reading; map reading; setting the grade of a road.

42. *Triangle (right, scalene, isosceles, and equilateral), parallelogram (square and rectangle), trapezoid, circle, ellipse, and regular polygon; prism, cylinder, cone, and sphere.*—Used in cone of fire; aiming circle; machine cams; cylindrical drums; optical instruments; construction.

43. *Similarity.* — Used in relationships among automotive parts; pattern making; recognition of airplanes in flight.

O. Drawing and Construction

44. *Use of ruler graduated in 32ds and in 10ths of an inch, and in millimeters; of compasses to construct circles; of protractors to measure and to draw angles.*—Used in preparation of parts for welding; radio repair; pattern making; laying out range charts; determining azimuths.

45. *Construction of a perpendicular to a line.*—Used in construction of bridges; machine-shop work; the thrust-line system of establishing a rendezvous; blueprint reading.

46. *Understanding of views of a simple object as given in a scale drawing, blueprint, or sketch.* — Used in fabrication of materials; motor mechanics; functioning of rifle; troop tactics, blueprint reading.

47. *Knowledge of the 3-4-5 relation of the sides of a right triangle.* —Used in carpentry; sighting mortars.

P. Miscellaneous

48. *Averages: mean, median, and mode.*—Used in calculation of average rations, average marksmanship scores; constructing a pace scale; Medical Corps statistics.

49. *Rounding numbers.* — Used in a great variety of calculations.

[*The members of the Committee on Mathematics for Inductees of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics are: Virgil S. Mallory, chairman, Rolland R. Smith, C. L. Thiele, F. Lynwood Wren, William A. Brownell, John Lund, and Giles M. Ruch. Reported from the* Mathematics Teacher, *XXXVI (October, 1943), 243-82.*]

TEACHERS' UNIONS?

In Progressive Education

YES!

KERMIT EBY

THE truly successful teacher teaches from her experience. The knowledge she has accumulated from classroom and textbook has been mellowed by life. Life to her is more than the routine of home and school—it is contact with the struggle of mankind for a better tomorrow. She knows her boys and girls as part of a family, part of a community, part of a state. She is interested in the welfare of her students as a part of the social organism, and in the welfare of society as it affects her students. She knows that it is not enough to talk about health and housing and nutrition; that concrete things must be done to make medical service, good food, and adequate homes available for all. The ideal teacher has convictions. She is not one who believes that it is possible to be neutral on controversial issues. She believes that boys and girls are not means but ends—ends for which we strive to build a better world. She loves them all—black or white, rich or poor, Protestant or Catholic or Jew. Otherwise she could not really influence them.

Believing as she does, she seeks to identify herself with groups of like-minded people, in an effort to take her part in the march of progress. Her seeking must inevitably lead her to the labor movement,

NO!

WILLIAM H. KILPATRICK

EDUCATION must accept the duty of building in youth the attitudes and techniques necessary for the more adequate study and wise revision of the culture. At the growing edge of culture, controversy often arises as to which proffered path promises best. It is these controversial problems and the democratic way of treating them that set the problem before us. The position to take on this question is, as I see it, to be determined by the limitations properly set by democracy upon teachers as these undertake to discharge their duty to society for the public welfare.

In respect of these controversial problems, as in all other matters, the democratic school, looking forward to effective democratic citizenship, must help each pupil as in him lies to develop the ability and disposition to think and conclude for himself. The controversial problems present here peculiar difficulties. The purpose the school has in studying these problems is not that the teacher (or the school or society) may tell the pupils what conclusions to reach, nor even to guide the pupils to the answer the teacher deems right (however superior the teacher may be to the pupils in judging such matters). The teacher is there to help the pupils learn the necessary techniques of

to the teachers' union—not because the labor movement is perfect, or the teachers' union without its faults, but because in these organizations she finds people with interests and beliefs common to hers and because organized labor in America from its very beginning fought for free public education. The creative teacher with the attitude I have described needs the teachers' union to protect her tenure and her job security. It has fought innumerable battles in the interest of academic freedom, over the years. It has protected the fearless teacher who refuses to permit a threat to her job to keep her from teaching the truth as she sees it.

American education, alone with American industry, needs the development and perfection of collective bargain and labor-management techniques. The teacher, like the industrial worker, needs the assurance that his talents are recognized, used, and appreciated. Policy in a school system should be the by-product of the best combined thinking of teachers and administration, and of the responsibility for the execution of policy should also be shared. We need teachers' unions to give teachers the courage and strength to meet the administrators as equals, and to free teachers from the inferiority feelings which now prevail among them. The teachers of America must be convinced first that teaching is an art, and second that it deserves adequate income.

honest openminded, penetrating, and constructive study. This does not mean that the teacher is not to have convictions, nor say outright what he believes. It does mean, in the words of Bronson Alcott, "The true teacher defends his pupils against his own personal influence."

The teacher must come to each succeeding year's study of any controversial problem with a mind as considerate as he can compass. He must keep his previously formed opinions in the background and he must be willing himself to seek and find new aspects of the problem. He must so reflect these openminded attitudes on his own part that, as he joins this year's pupils for study, they can and do see and feel his honest willingness to consider afresh with them the unfolding merits of the problem as the matter itself unfolds in their shared study. In the degree that the teacher cannot honestly so impress his students, by so much does he fail of good teaching. In particular, any public commitment on his part, if known to his pupils, carries risk of hurt to his teaching. In this respect the personal duties of aggressive citizenship may have to yield to the higher duty of fair, effective teaching.

The proper place of "labor" within our industrial society is today highly controversial and any teacher dealing with the labor problem is under special obligation to avoid partisanship. But suppose this teacher has already by explicit

Teachers' unions fight for adequate incomes and decent working conditions. They fight for the tools of civilized living; sufficient leisure, normal family life, and job security. These tools for living are dependent on income; public-school income is dependent on taxation; and adequate tax income is dependent on a healthy community. Such a community is usually one where labor is strong and influential, where its weight is felt on boards of education and state legislatures. Practically speaking, teachers need allies in the achievement of their legislative programs, and labor has a record of being their best ally on local, state, and federal levels. There is no doubt that, to keep educational opportunity equalized, the schools of tomorrow will need federal aid. Affiliation with labor assures teachers of a base powerful enough to throw its influence on even the highest levels of government.

Teachers should join unions for idealistic and pragmatic reasons, to protect academic freedom, to protect themselves, to protect the integrity of their profession, to secure an adequate income; but above all, to take part in the people's struggles and to grow roots in the community.

professional organization aligned himself on the side of labor. Has he not thereby so committed himself in advance to one side of this controversial area as to make it difficult for either side among his pupils to accept his full impartiality? Has he not in fact by his act of affiliation exactly loaded the dice against his success at teaching?

As a citizen-teacher I have the same right as other citizens to ally myself with a political party of my own choosing and to vote accordingly. But the degree and manner of my open and aggressive advocacy of my party is properly to be decided only after a consideration of my duties as teacher. If for instance, I work at party headquarters all night so that the next day I am too worn out and sleepy to teach, I should call that a wrong exercise of my citizenship rights. And if I should so strongly express myself in favor of my party's side that I prevented myself from guiding my pupils to open-minded study, then I should be wrongly exercising my citizenship rights. Pupils' prejudices being what they are, teachers' affiliation with organized labor tends in significant degree to hurt the teachers' proper work.

[*Kermit Eby is a member of the Education Department, Committee for Industrial Organization. William H. Kilpatrick is Professor Emeritus, Teachers College, Columbia University. Reported from* Progressive Education, *XX (October, 1943), 260-63, 301.*]

THE TEACHER IN AN ACTIVITY PROGRAM*

ESTHER Z. SCHWARTZ

In the Journal of Educational Sociology

IT is the first day of the new term with my fifth-grade class. I am confronted with 36 eager faces, 36 thinking, feeling, active children. What happens to them during the next few months is in my hands to a great extent. I pray that I may have the infinite patience daily to help them grow into socially congenial and useful people. Are they not the men and women who will make decisions tomorrow? I must help them adjust to a swiftly changing society. I realize my heavy obligation to each individual child, to his parents, and to society.

I have been experimenting with the procedures of the activity program under sound and sympathetic supervision for at least six years. Many difficulties clear up as one goes along. However, the more one knows about children and how they mature the less opinionated one becomes. There is always the obligation to rethink and reorganize classroom practice in the light of educational objectives. There is always the thrill of professional exploration.

These children are not strangers to me. I have looked over their records and talked to their previous teachers; last term I visited them in their classroom to see them at work. I know some of them by name and achievement. Though friendly relations have been established, we now are facing the challenges of a class with a new teacher. We get acquainted by talking about our common interests. We elect officers and plan our room duties. We talk about what we shall do this term. I suggest several functional areas for social learnings; food, clothing, housing, communication, transportation, conservation of human and natural resources. My enthusiasm plus their experiences welds us into an interested, unified group. Later on, when we know each other better, one unit of study will grow out of another. Now, they must be helped to take the initial steps.

We plan to visit the Public Library, to bring in books to share with others, to study the newspapers and tell about current happenings, to listen to the radio and discuss what the commentators say. We form various committees and do research work on social problems. In their research work and committee reports the object is to stimulate critical thinking and intelligent questioning. By reference to such definite, reliable sources as encyclopedias, the *World Almanac*, and current periodicals we save

*The activity program here referred to is that carried on by the Division of Elementary Schools in New York City, an experiment which included 70 elementary schools with about 75,000 children and nearly 2500 teachers.

time and energy and clear up misconceptions in a friendly, objective manner. When there is friction within a committee, the opportunity is used to teach pupils how to work together harmoniously.

The committee report or the pooling of their findings is one of the high spots of a day. The leader sets the stage and introduces his committee. They make blackboard sketches, show pictures, and refer to maps while they share with us the information they have gathered. Sometimes they perform experiments or enact dramatic incidents. The leader sums up, trying to pull many threads together. Then he requests additional information from the class. Large audience participation is a sure indication that the report held their interest. This is followed by constructive criticism from both the class and the committee and finally a check-up which may take the form of cross-questioning by the children, a topical outline on the blackboard by all of us, or a short answer test by the teacher.

When launching a unit the children are given a broad overview of the major areas which we may be able to explore. Thus we all know where we are going. Each morning we plan the day's work together. We remember that the school day should usually include five broad blocks of work: (1) reading activities and appreciations, (2) language arts, (3) research and pooling, (4) arts and crafts, (5) skills and drills. In planning we are guided by our daily needs also, and we are always concerned with completing the jobs we have started.

A day's plan might read thus: (1) *News and views.* This is a talk on current events interpreted and illustrated. (2) *Show and tell.* This is a talk or demonstration on some experiment tried at home, some book read, some original poem, some interesting letter received, or object found. A committee displays illustrative materials or passes them around. Questions are asked and invited. (3) *Reading our logs.* Individual and committee reports. (4) *Relaxation.* While we have milk and crackers we listen to the victrola or tell stories. (5) *Writing about our special interests.* (6) *Research.* Pooling of information and illustrations by Harold's committee. LUNCH (7) *Skills and drills.* Individual and group practice in arithmetic. (8) *Library time.* Browsing and reading for pleasure. (9) *Conference.* Planning for our play. Dance demonstration and practice.

Planning the day is one of our many obligations. Other responsibilities come to the children daily. They learn to lead as well as to follow. They bring in materials for other committees as well as for their own. When working in groups the children have an opportunity to practice social amenities — using soft voices, giving the other fellow a chance to speak, respecting his

opinion, learning to give as well as take constructive criticism. Room duties are rotated.

Sometimes I manipulate classroom affairs so that Evelyn, who loves to chat with everybody, checks to see that each child is wearing his identification tag. June, who is inclined to be tardy, checks attendance and reminds certain children to be punctual. Jonah, whose desk and floor are often littered with paper, inspects the floor. Murray, who is always running into people, carries our milk upstairs carefully.

With wartime tensions crowding on our children, many forms of expression are a necessity. Much enjoyment comes from painting, dancing, singing, weaving, clay-work, and woodwork. In addition to these, I have found creative writing an urgent source of release. Here the children frequently reveal their innermost feelings. While trying to develop their strengths, I am aware of their weaknesses and do something about them. Standardized tests in arithmetic and reading are given several times a year and the result diagnosed. Remedial groups are set up and materials are adjusted to their needs. Individual conferences are held with parents at which times we discuss the children's progress and difficulties and also their attitudes and their health.

Each child keeps a folder of his logs and his creative writing. Thus from Alvin's folder his growth is shown in expressing his ideas, in the language skills, and in legibility. He keeps an individual list of his misspelled words, too. Through graphs in spelling and arithmetic he watches his daily progress in terms of his own past record rather than in class competition.

Posted around our room are many forms of class records. We have charts which show what newspapers our children are reading, what radio programs we are listening to, what books we are borrowing from the library, also what room duties we are engaged in. Because we are stressing service to the community we record our buying of bonds and stamps, our conservation of materials—supplies, clothing, and food.

Since we are living in a war period, we must keep abreast of the events of the day in order to interpret the war news, and to appreciate our priceless democratic and spiritual heritage. By presenting broad concepts through large areas and basic geographic controls, the children get the idea of interdependence among people and nations and the world of tomorrow.

Esther Z. Schwartz is a teacher in Public School 191 in Brooklyn, New York. Reported from the Journal of Educational Sociology, *XVII (October, 1943), 103-8.*

DEVELOPING CRITICAL STANDARDS IN BOOK REPORTS

JOSEPH C. BLUMENTHAL

In the English Journal

EVERY teacher hopes that one permanent result of his personally conducted tour through the masterpieces is the establishing in the students' minds of certain standards of judgment which will enable them to distinguish between the wheat and chaff in literature. We hope that, as a reward for our efforts, some of our students will develop discrimination which will carry them beyond the arbitrariness of the usual "swell" or "lousy" verdict.

I had noticed, as others have, that students' book reports are much stronger on the "story" side than on the critical or analytical. I had found the *Book Review Digest* a useful guide to my own reading. For the purpose of developing discriminatory ability I decided to introduce it to my senior students. I led up to the assignment by opening the general topic of movie and book reviews. Why do newspapers and magazines employ critics? Why do people read criticisms? Where are reviews to be found in our local papers? Have you ever been discouraged from attending or encouraged to attend a movie as a result of reading a review? How reliable are a critic's opinions? What similarities exist between book reviews and sport reviews?

In any average class it will soon develop that a critic is a specialist who devotes his full time to a particular field. As a result of his talents, training, and experience, he sees all the fine points which the inexperienced are likely to overlook. A football fan reads the account of a game partly, at least, to see it through the eyes of an expert. As a result, he has a better understanding of the intricate plays of the next game which he sees. Literary or movie reviews serve a similar purpose. Besides giving us an opportunity to compare notes with an expert judge of such matters, they direct us to the more agreeable experiences and save us the time, expense, and disappointment of a book or movie which has no appeal for us. Of course, it is stupid to let a critic do our thinking for us. After hearing all the evidence, we must reserve our own judgment. Since even the critics often disagree among themselves, we may frequently take issue with them. By following the reviews of a particular reviewer or publication, however, we can soon decide to what extent we can rely on them as personal guides. Not that the critic is wrong because he disagrees with us or that we are wrong because we disagree with him but rather that the personal equation is an all-important factor; and we must, by trial and error, discover emotional and intellectual affinities.

The next step was to become acquainted with the nature and organization of the *Book Review Digest*. The students were asked to thumb through copies I had obtained and to search for the criterions, or standards, by which critics praise or condemn fiction. When ever the student happened on a basis or criterion of criticism (favorable or unfavorable), he filled out a 3 x 5 card as follows: (1) On the top line he put as a heading the general nature of the criticisms; for example, "Motivation of action," "Character delineation," "Setting," "Style," "Plausibility," "Dialog," etc. It must be emphasized that these headings are to be very broad and general in order to forestall such detailed headings as "Good description of a sharecropper's life," instead of "Realism," or "Trueness to life." (2) On the second line he wrote the title and author of the book. (3) On the remaining lines he quoted briefly the material he found in the review which bore on his heading. (4) In one of the upper corners of the card he put a "+" or a "—" depending on whether the comment is favorable or unfavorable. The cards produced were then grouped according to headings in order to emphasize their drift to the students. Two examples of the cards submitted follow:

UNORIGINAL —

The Closed Door: Ronald Douglas

"It sounds like any one of a dozen recent stories about Nazi concentration camps, simply transferred to a new setting."

MOTIVATION +

The Valley of the Sun: Clarence Kelland

"He keeps his characters well in hand and, with due allowance for dramatic requirements, makes them behave as men and women would at the time and under the circumstances."

STYLE —

Magnificent Obsession: Lloyd Douglas

"Told in half the space . . . 'Magnificent Obsession' might be ticketed as an entertaining product, but Mr. Douglas never uses one word when five will serve."

GOOD CHARACTERIZATION +

Touchdown: A. C. Rowell

"Michael's friends are convincingly lively, the children almost recognizable as those who live next door to you or me."

DISORGANIZED PLOT —

The Law and the McLaughlins: Margaret Wilson

"The action moves in jerky, confused, and uncoordinated sequence as if the author could not make up her mind just what direction it should take."

The clearest and cleverest cards were then culled, with a wide range of variety in mind, and were presented to the class and used as a basis for discussion. There is scarcely a principle of criticism that will not be represented in this collection.

The wit and forcefulness of some of these critical comments—particularly the "slams"—appeal to the students' love for racy expression and supply them not only with the language of criticisms but—what is still more important—with the fundamentals of criticism. A byproduct of this lesson which is worthy of mention is that some students in the course of their exploration can't resist taking down a title here and there for future reading.

The real fruit of this procedure will be observed on the next regular book-report assignment, which, in most cases, will be handled on a much higher plane than the usual "what happened next" type of product with which we are too familiar. If anything, the young reviewers will be too fastidious in their demands on the poor novelists—so great is their zeal to put their new tools into instant use!

A number of other applications and variations of this project are possible. The critical principles may be applied to current movies since, as fiction, they have much common ground with novels. A paper might be written on "What Makes a Good Novel." Students may look up the reviews of a book read for home-reading requirements and write a paper explaining why they agree or disagree with the critical comment.

Perhaps Tom and Janet will find something more to say than "Pretty good" or "Not bad" as they step out into the glare of the theater lobby, blink their eyes, and head for the nearest soda fountain. There is also the not too unlikely hope that students will learn to consult the *Book Review Digest,* as well as reviews in general, when, after graduation, to read or not to read a particular book is the question.

[*Joseph C. Blumenthal is head of the English Department, Mackenzie High School, Detroit, Michigan. Reported from the* English Journal, *XXXII (September, 1943), 369-73.*]

On Common Ground

THE role which education can play in aiding in the eradication of racial barriers is indicated by a unique occurrence in Detroit, Michigan, during the race riots. At a time when all other public meetings were banned, school commencement exercises were permitted to go on. Night after night exercises were held in school buildings, white and colored graduates sitting side by side, honor students of each race cheered by both races, and there was not an untoward incident to mar the harmony of the occasions!

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY—A NATIONAL PROBLEM

J. Edgar Hoover

In the National Parent-Teacher

IT has been incumbent on us as a nation at war to make a close study of our way of living so that any inherent weaknesses might be corrected. But haven't we forgotten something? Interspersed with the daily newspaper headlines about action on the war fronts are grim reminders that we have indeed. In an Ohio city an 11-year-old girl shot her little sister to death because she was "mad at her." In another city a 12-year-old boy threatened his teacher with an automatic pistol. In a large Eastern city four boys ranging in age from 15 to 17 stabbed to death a Chinese laundryman. Nor are these cases unusual. They are indicative of a trend toward criminality that has swept like prairie fire among our nation's youth. Consider these facts: Last year young persons under 21 accounted for 15 per cent of all arrests for murder, 34 percent of all arrests for robbery and larceny, and 50 percent of all arrests for burglary. Arrests of boys, as compared with 1941 figures, increased 17 percent for assault, 10 percent for rape, 26 percent for disorderly conduct, and 30 percent for drunkenness—and this in spite of the fact that thousands of young men are in the armed forces or employed in full-time war jobs! On the girls' side the picture is even darker, with arrests rising almost 56 percent and offenses against common decency soaring to a 106-percent increase. During 1943 this upward tendency has continued.

Here is a problem of great magnitude, demanding the nation's most intelligent attention. It concerns all of us vitally, for it affects our youth, on whose shoulders will soon fall the weighty responsibility of holding together our precious democratic heritage. Even in time of peace the task of keeping young people on the path of righteousness and good behavior is a difficult one. Since the war began, however, this problem has been accentuated many times over. The social unrest caused by the demands of our all-out effort at the front and at home has broken down, to a great extent, our usual barriers against lawlessness. Today, many parents engaged in war work are unable to give their children the care they need. Many persons who were formerly active leaders in youth programs are no longer living in their own communities. Finally, the general excitement of the war has stimulated, often beyond control, young people's craving for action, and many of them have consequently turned to interests that are morally harmful.

That is one view of America at war, and it is not a pleasant one. But just as we have attacked our other problems on a united front, I feel that we can, by determined

effort, solve the problem of juvenile delinquency. The prime responsibility, of course, rests with the homes all over the nation. Parents, however, cannot do the whole job. Our schools have a heavy responsibility. A school, after all, is more than a font of information and knowledge. It is a place where the ideals and desires of impressionable youth should be molded along wholesome lines. Education is not merely a process of filling a student's head with facts and figures; it should develop as far as possible the talents of every child. This is particularly true of misbehaving children. A so-called problem child is usually one with problems of his own that need attention. Teachers, as trained analysts, should strive constantly to make education not a matter of mass production but one of personal and individual treatment.

The problem, then, is one in which both parents and teachers have an interest. It is imperative for an intelligent coordination of effort that parents and teachers meet at regular intervals to discuss the problems of children. The various parent-teacher groups have done excellent work along this line in the past. I do feel, however, that in many instances the parents of "delinquent" children are the very ones who do not take advantage of this opportunity to talk over the status of their children with the teachers. To meet this situation, all teachers and those parents who are already cooperating as a group should make every effort to encourage the active participation of "noninterested" parents in such meetings.

Parent-teacher groups, being close to the heart of the delinquency problem, are in a splendid position to determine the needs of misbehaving young people and to hlep them solve their problems. Particularly today, when all adult America is preoccupied with the war, there is a great need for parents and teachers to start in motion, through the schools, worthwhile social, recreational, and vocational programs to occupy children's leisure time. A young person who has interesting things to do after school hours and knows he is receiving sincere attention of older people is well on the road to good citizenship and successful later life.

The record of the parent-teacher associations on behalf of youth in time of peace has been a glorious one, and I am confident that they will fulfill in like manner their very grave wartime responsibilities.

[*J. Edgar Hoover is Chief of the Federal Bureau of Investigation. Reported from the* National Parent-Teacher, *XXXVIII (September, 1943), 4-6.*]

EDUCATION'S MEGACYCLE

WILLIAM DOW BOUTWELL

In the Journal of the Association for Education by Radio

UNLESS educators show greater interest in the F-M band set aside for schools and colleges, these channels will begiven to commercial applicants." This flat warning came from the very highest authority—Chairman James L. Fly, of the Federal Communications Commission, in his address before the May 1943 Institute on Education by Radio at Columbus, Ohio. Reiteration of this warning recently by FCC Commissioner Wakefield indicates that Chairman Fly's viewpoint is, in all probability, also the viewpoint of the Commission. Entirely friendly in tone, the warnings invite education to act before pressure forces the Commission to license to commercial radio applicants channels unused in the education megacycle.

The story of Education's Megacycle begins in 1938. In that year the FCC held hearings on the question of allocating the radio spectrum from 41,000 to 42,00 kilocycles for broadcasting. Although this sector held the high frequencies unheard on average receiving sets, education was alert. Here a "new subdivision" was opening up. Should there be a place in it for education? More than 300 leading educators supported Commissioner Studebaker in asking for channel reservations. According to this request the Commission set aside the megacycle 41-42 for exclusive use of schools and colleges. Almost before any plans could be laid, F-M rose over the radio horizon. Successful demonstrations by Major Armstrong prompted the FCC to reclassify the bands 42 to 50 kilocycle range for F-M. Education's Megacycle was moved up to 42-43. Commercial enthusiasm over F-M made education's corner in the new radio subdivision much more attractive. Sets receiving both A-M and F-M came on the market. F-M's high fidelity and diminution of static excited wide interest. Commercial applications for F-M licenses soared. Some school systems and colleges made inquiries. Then came war. Receiver production stopped. Only 45 commercial F-M stations actually came into operation. Six educational F-M licenses have been issued. Of these Cleveland and Chicago have the most operational experience from which to report. Both have found the shift over to F-M both easy and desirable. New York is getting under way. San Francisco and the University of Kentucky are waiting until the end of the war reopens the equipment market. The University of Illinois is using its F-M station for training purposes.

All told, the FCC has reserved 40 channels for F-M. Of these five have been set aside for "noncommercial education broadcast stations." Five channels seem much

too few until one realizes that stations using them may be dotted across the country with greater frequency than A-M stations. Actual separation to avoid interference need be as little as 20 to 25 miles for low-power stations and 100 to 140 miles for stations 1 kw. and up. But in any one area only every other channel may be used. In the New York area, for example, Newark, Elizabeth, and New York City school systems could have channels but that would use up Education's Megacycle in the New York metropolitan area. Recent studies by the U. S. Office of Education reveal that all schools in a state like Ohio could be served by judicious location for 18 to 20 major transmitters using all five available channels. Educational statesmanship and planning will be necessary to assure that the Educational Megacycle shall be developed to the best advantage for the benefit of all.

What should communities be doing about F-M now? We have the warning that education must show some interest in its megacycle or lose portions of it. We see that the few centers with F-M are pleased with it. We also know that hundreds of school systems and colleges and universities now have a background of experience in educational broadcasting over local commercial stations. More than two score universities and colleges have successfully operated stations for more than 20 years. But it is also clear that radio station ownership will be regarded as a strange and dangerous adventure by many boards of education. Many college presidents are still skeptical of radio.

Therefore, the challenge to radio educators is clear. It is up to us to make school authorities aware that postwar planning for F-M stations must *begin now!* We must urge them to appoint committees representative of school systems or colleges to consider F-M ownership. We should build up our local educational radio production activities because successful use of an F-M station will depend on the trained program producers and users. We should ask our school boards to address inquiries to the FCC signifying their interest in acquiring channels in the future.

For argument we have many persuasive facts. Here are a few of the most important:

1. F-M is inexpensive. For the cost of two classrooms at the most, a school system can purchase an F-M transmitter which will serve and aid students and teachers in *every* school of a city. Eventually, the station can also provide an invaluable link between school and home as F-M set ownership broadens. Maintenance and staff costs are very moderate.

2. Technological aids to teaching must be used more extensively after the war if education is to keep up with the times. One of these new aids is the F-M transmitter and the

educational programs it can bring to school and home.

3. Educational F-M stations and commercial stations do not compete; they supplement one another. No commercial station wishes to repeat programs, yet repetition is essential if successive classes in the same subject are to be served. Moreover, the educational program is often not the kind of a program a commercial station manager wants for his general audience.

4. Education by radio makes for better teaching; it does not displace teachers. Twenty years' experimentation demonstrates that radio can motivate learning and aid the hard worked teachers to be more effective; only in special and rare situations can radio "teach."

5. Ownership of an F-M transmitter by a school or college is good insurance against emergencies. Schoolboard members and superintendents are conscious of their responsibility for lives of children and teachers. They can breathe easier if they know radio communication is at their elbow for instant use in case of storms, fires, epidemics, riots, or other catastrophies.

Further information on Education's Megacycle can be obtained from the U. S. Office of Education. Ready for early publication is "F-M for Education." This brief illustrated pamphlet will tell in detail what F-M is, how much it costs, the wide variety of educational programs (with examples from actual experiences) that can be presented and, finally, the steps to take to obtain and operate an F-M station. "F-M for Education" should be helpful to radio educators who are willing to act now to save Education's Megacycle for education.

William Dow Boutwell is Director of Information and Radio Services, U. S. Office of Education. Reported from the Journal of the Association for Education by Radio, *III (September, 1943), 1, 8.*

Squelch the Squander Bug

A NEW figure in the world of saboteurs, gremlins, and other enemies to our war effort is the Squander Bug, the fifth-column pest who gets into wallets and tosses bills wildly in all directions except that leading to war aid. A 20-minute play, "The Squander Bug's Christmas Carol," has been written by Alleen L. Fisher, about the symbolic Squander Bug to show children how to apply wartime thrift to Christmas shopping. Copies of the play may be obtained from the Education Section, War Finance Div., Treasury Department, Washington 25, D. C.

EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING AFTER THE WAR

GEORGE S. McCUE

In the Quarterly Journal of Speech

PRESENT-DAY education by radio is faulty because it is fragmentary. It presents no pattern. Geography, history, sociology, philosophy, literature, or any other subject does not consist of snippets of information. A knowledge of them cannot be imparted between wisecracks, advertising appeals, and a miscellany of believe-it-or-nots. I even question the effort of the most concentrated analysis, brilliantly and intelligently presented, when it is offered in a vacuum—when it takes place by itself without tie-ups with other phases of the subject or with other subjects.

Such radio education as we now have is deceptive: It sounds like the real thing, gives an illusion of value, but is really brummagem. Understanding is gained by concentration, by activity, by hard work on the part of the learner. This holds true for an understanding of the workings of a doorbell or Einstein's theory, for the implications of an amendment to the Constitution or a pain in the bowels.

I would not care to go on record as being against anything that contributed to the gaiety of nations; I would merely remind you that a superb medium like radio might well contribute to something besides gaiety. The sober truth is that today we especially need a better educated citizenry. It is a bromide almost unworthy of repetition that if we knew more about men, about their history, their economics, their ways of living, their language, and their psychology we might be enjoying peace today. And if that is true of the present, the obligation for future education when there will be a peace to consider will be even more pressing. After the war the ordinary citizen is going to face hazardous postwar problems. Pressure from here and there will be brought to bear on us to do this and that. Every bloc now existing, and a few more to be created, will jam the radio waves with distracting appeals for action. We like to think that we are doing our best in the colleges to prepare the youth of the country for such an emergency, for the bafflement that is certain to come, and for the solution by intelligent action. But youth is not all. There is the problem of youth's parents. Why should not educators make the effort to reach people of voting age? It is evident that educators now have a channel for reaching not only the youth who will run the world tomorrow, but also the men who are running it today.

So I say, now is the time for our educational institutions to begin making a serious effort to expand their campus activities to take in their communities. If a subject is

worthy of a place on the curriculum, why should it not be aired publicly? The education which I would advocate having the colleges put on the air would have four cardinal principles. First, it would be planned. It would be a series of connected programs, extending over many months, and pointing toward one clear, definable goal. Second, such a program would tie up subjects with one another with a view to making life more significant to the listener. Third, I would have education by radio a strenuous business for the listener. To this end I would have assignments and projects given. I would encourage outside reading, I would furnish syllabi, problems, questions and answers, pictures, maps, anything that would aid a conscientious listener. I see no reason why problems that arise in the mind of the listener should not be sent to and answered by the teacher. And I should think some kind of credit could be given for the successful completion of such radio courses. Finally, these radio courses must be prepared and presented by those who have a good knowledge of radio technique.

There are, I know, many possible objections to education by radio; but I consider all of them specious. Some maintain that the listening public is a giant booby, who, when he listens to anything coming out of his radio, wants amusement rather than instruction. This degenerate, dim-witted oaf is a picture conjured by the misanthropes and aesthetes who live in many collegiate ivory and Gothic towers. They probably would not like to hear that according to a survey made last year more than 80 percent of the radios in a small western Colorado town carried an educational program to someone in the household who remembered the main thesis of the talk. Worth maintaining, too, is the fact that three of our college programs on preventing and treating colds had a greater response than all of our informal, "pleasant interlude" programs put together. Other objectors say that radio might cheapen education. These people should realize that the day of education exclusively for the priestly and aristocratic classes is over; the day of education exclusively for those who can travel to a classroom should give way to a better day, one in which anyone with a desire to study should have the opportunity to do so in his own living room.

I am happy to conclude with a few fragmentary reports to the effect that education by radio has already started. Most significant to me has been the formation of a local organization to try to integrate and improve the programs given by the colleges and universities in the state of Colorado. Founded several years ago, the Rocky Mountain Radio Council gives advice on the organization of college programs, on their preparation and presentation. It makes re-

cordings of its better programs and distributes them to small radio stations in Colorado and Wyoming. It attempts to get listener reaction to these programs. I am also happy to report that many a large institution like the University of Chicago has already started education over the air waves; that many another institution like Iowa is broadcasting classes over its own station. And that even the radio stations themselves are showing interest in frankly educational programs.

Educators must of necessity be cautious. A lively suspicion of the new and untried should go hand in hand with a lively suspicion of the old and tried. But we have frequently dilly-dallied too long over innovations. Nearly ten generations intervened between the introduction of illustrated books and their use in the schools. We are getting around to use the magic lantern a little, but we are hardly making any use of the moving picture in education. Let us not be so remiss toward the microphone. After the war we must make use of the radio in teaching; today we should be preparing ourselves to be more useful to the millions outside as well as those inside our colleges and universities.

[*George McCue is Assistant Professor of English at Colorado College. Reported from the* Quarterly Journal of Speech, *XXIX (October, 1943), 294-97.*]

Going Down

APPROXIMATELY 30 million persons attended full-time day schools, public and private, in 1939-40. Of this total, 21,100,000 were in elementary schools, including kindergartens, 7,100,000 in secondary schools, 1,500,000 in institutions of higher education, and the remainder in private commercial schools, schools of nursing not affiliated with institutions of higher education, and schools for Indians. Males constituted 51 percent of the enrolment, and publicly controlled institutions enrolled 88 percent of the total.

The grand total enrolment decreased by 445,410 students, or 1.5 percent from 1937-38 to 1939-40, and by 680,000 students, or 2.2 percent, from the peak enrolment in 1933-34, in spite of the large increases in high-school and college enrolments during the same period.—*U. S. Office of Education.*

MILITARY GUIDANCE FOR YOUTH ENTERING THE ARMED FORCES

ALFRED S. LEWERENZ

In the Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

MILITARY guidance basically is part of a long-term vocational guidance program. Military guidance requires no new fundamental techniques but utilizes occupational information and instructional materials related to needs in the Armed Forces much as we have been accustomed to doing in the orientation of youth to civilian business and industry. The same six steps inherent in the guidance program developed in Los Angeles are utilized in the military guidance program now being encouraged in all secondary schools of the city. The same procedures are employed in other school systems with perhaps a different phrasing of process but with the same underlying purpose of helping the student to decide intelligently for himself where he can best fit into the world of work.

Unchanged, except as they relate to *military* guidance, the six steps necessary to guidance are here discussed.

1. *Discovering the student's basic interest area or areas.* — The Army and Navy classification systems operate on the basis that an enlisted man who is performing a task that he is interested in and for which he has a natural aptitude will, on the average, do the job better than a man who has been selected arbitrarily for the work. One of the first steps in military guidance is to discover an individual's basic interests and abilities. If these can be determined it may be possible to discover occupational relationships of guidance value. To aid in this plan six broad areas of interest have been developed for use in Los Angeles schools—aesthetic, commercial, mechanical, natural, scientific, and social. It is possible to discover a student's interests through a careful interview taking into account such information as his leisure-time activities, extra-curriculum activities, reading interests, and school subjects enjoyed.

2. *Determining the student's ability level within the basic interest area or areas.*—It is on the basis of natural ability that a man is promoted in the military service. Where the lives of men are at stake the most competent person must be in charge. New inductees are given a battery of aptitude tests within a few days of their being sworn into service. In the Army, for example, they receive the *General Classification Test, Radio Code Listening Test,* and *Mechanical Aptitude Test.* The scores, coupled with the results of an oral interview, determine a man's classification and probable assignment.

Every boy leaving school should have guidance in discovering what

his strengths and weaknesses are and how to make the best use of his abilities. Factors that he should have at least general information on include his mental maturity, reading ability, mathematics standing, personality pattern, and health status. With regard to the last, no boy should leave school who is not as physically fit as it is in the power of the school to make him. Ability to meet each day's load with a vigorous attack is, perhaps, the most important ability of all.

3. *Supplying occupational information at the probable performance level within a likely occupational area.* — The specialized occupations required to run a mechanized war call for more than 650 different jobs in the Army alone. Clearly, if a boy is to choose an occupation wisely he should have some idea as to the specialties available in the Army, Navy, Seabees, Coast Guard, and Marines. He also should know what kind of work he desires to enter after having completed military service. If possible, he should then choose a military specialty which will at least provide supplementary training for his civilian occupational goal. Occupational information of a military nature is now exceedingly plentiful. One of the best single references for the Army is a handbook used in the classification of personnel. It is known as *Army Regulations 615-26, Enlisted Men: Index and Specifications for Civilian and Military Occupational Specialists.* It may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., for $1.25. The same book is used by the Marine Corps. The Navy has no comparable dictionary, but two very useful pamphlets may be obtained from recruiting offices. One is called, *What Kind of a Job Can I Get in the Navy?* It describes 50 different occupations. The other is *Build and Fight with the Seabees.* This includes 37 jobs from "blacksmith" to "wire splicer." An official publication of great guidance value is a pamphlet called *Our Armed Forces,* which gives an overview of life in both the Army and Navy. Though prepared under the direction of the U. S. Office of Education, it is secured from the *Infantry Journal,* in Washington, D. C. Much wartime guidance material is available through the U. S. Office of Education. Private publishers have also gotten out excellent material such as the *Army Selectee's Handbook* by John R. Crof, Stanford University Press, and *Youth Goes to War* by Lyle M. Spencer, Science Research Associates, Chicago.

4. *Providing education experiences that give the student a tryout in the field he has chosen for preparation.* — With the usual educational program of many a boy cut off the day he becomes 18, it is the responsibility of the school to make him ready for his military life through preinduction training. Such training may be a part of the

Victory Corps program or it may grow out of courses set up to meet specific needs. Boys of superior ability who may hope to be selected for the Army Specialized Training Program may major in a university or college in engineering, psychology, medicine, mathematics, science, and foreign languages. Such boys will find it to their advantage while in high school to take all the courses they can in science, mathematics, English, languages, and history. Youth who plan to enter the Air Corps Enlisted Reserve should major in high school in subjects such as English, mathematics, and physics. Preflight courses are suggested in *Preaviation Cadet Training in High Schools,* Leaflet No. 62, 1942, U. S. Office of Education. A series of bulletins has been prepared by the Civilian Preinduction Training Branch of the War Department and the U. S. Office of Education. They are as follows: PIT 330, *Preinduction Training in Vocational Schools, Vocational Departments, and Trade Schools* (1943); PIT 331, *Preinduction Vocational Training in Auto Mechanics;* PIT 332, *Preinduction Vocational Training in Machine-Shop Practice;* PIT 333, *Preinduction Vocational Training in Aircraft Maintenance;* PIT 334, *Preinduction Vocational Training in Electrical Signal Communications;* PIT-101, *Fundamentals of Electricity;* PIT-102, *Fundamentals of Machines;* PIT-103, *Fundamentals of Shopwork;* PIT-201, *Fundamentals of Radio;* PIT-202, *Fundamentals of Automotive Mechanics; Driver Education; Army Clerical Procedures.*

Boys who are anxious to win the chevrons of noncommissioned officers do well to take courses to acquire general skills recommended for all military men by the government. These skills include ability to (1) type at least 25 words a minute; (2) carry on ordinary conversation in a foreign language such as Spanish, German, or Japanese; (3) send and receive messages in radio code; (4) swim at least 50 yards under handicap; (5) read maps and make military sketches; (6) identify current types of enemy and friendly aircraft; (7) recognize and identify different types of military insignia; (8) follow basic military commands. Other attainments highly to be desired are a good working knowledge of American history and world geography. Work experience, if properly directed and supervised, can be excellent preparation for military service.

5. *Facilitating placement of the student in the kind of work for which he has aptitude and training.* —That an inductee is not always properly placed may be due to such factors as: (1) failure to state his qualifications forcibly enough or omission of them; (2) arrival at the Reception Center in a physical condition which did not permit him to do his best on the tests or interviews; (3) overestimating his quali-

fications; (4) choosing a specialty for which there was no immediate opening; (5) arriving at a time when the need was for a large quota for a different classification; (6) disinclination of some officers to use the newer methods of personnel selection.

Boys can be helped in overcoming such factors by orienting them with regard to the entire process of registration, induction, classification, and training, and by giving them the chance to study beforehand the kind of information the government feels is important in placing them.

6. *Following up the student on the job.*—No school can really judge the effectiveness of its instructional program or guidance procedures unless it keeps in touch with its graduates for a number of years subsequent to graduation. In wartime the school has added cause for maintaining a friendly relation with its former students. Some of the special follow-up activities include: (1) encouraging faculty members to write to former students who are in the Service; (2) giving credit to nongraduates toward a diploma for military training courses; (3) encouraging boys to take additional courses with the Armed Forces Institute; (4) keeping an adequate set of informative personnel records on graduates so that when they have a chance for military promotion the school can supply needed evidence as to training, work, activities, and leadership; (5) receiving suggestions from men in service as to how preinduction courses might be improved; (6) bringing graduates back to the school to emphasize the importance of adequate training as a means of becoming a better fighting man.

So important is military guidance these days that it should be put in the hands of the best qualified person in the school for the work. He should be given a special title such as "Wartime Counselor," or "Military Adviser." He or his assistants should be given time to interview each boy in the presence of his parents. At the interview should be assembled all the available information about the boy to aid in making an intelligent decision.

The outcome of a program of military guidance should be that each boy leaves high school prepared to take an active part in the war effort based on his own capacities and in line with a future vocational goal.

[*Alfred S. Lewerenz is Supervisor, Educational Research and Guidance Section, Los Angeles, California, City Schools. Reported from the* Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, *XXVII (October, 1943), 51-58.*]

WHAT WE'RE UP AGAINST

HOWARD A. DAWSON

In Educational Leadership

AMERICA'S home army includes an estimated 894,000 public-school classroom teachers, principals, and supervisors. This educational contingent is dwindling despite the fact that the War Manpower Commission has officially declared educational services to be an essential war activity.

The potential teacher shortage during the next nine months is estimated at 75,000. There is a serious and growing shortage of elementary and secondary-school teachers. The dearth of instructors is particularly acute in war-related subjects in which men predominate and in the rural and small-town schools in most parts of the country. During the school year 1942-43, approximately 39,000 teachers joined the armed forces while 37,000 teachers were attracted into war industries and other private employment by higher wages. In normal times about 11,000 teachers enter private employment annually. The teacher-turnover, normally about 10 percent, rose to 21 percent during the school year 1942-43, with some 189,000 teachers in new positions. The turnover rate was more than twice as great in rural as in urban schools. During the 1942 summer vacation period approximately 34,000 rural teachers found jobs in urban schools at higher pay.

In a teacher-shortage study, the U. S. Office of Education points out that teacher shortages may cause fully as much damage to the American schools through lowered standards of teacher competency as through the actual closing of classrooms. One educator has written: "The spread between rural and urban standards is widening. If this war is prolonged, the present trend threatens to reduce standards for rural teachers to a level on which they have not been since the Civil War."

The extent of the loss of competency is indicated by an eightfold increase during the past year in the number of war emergency certificates issued to teachers who could not meet regular certification requirements, by a large increase in the number of teachers with substandard qualifications, and by a growing number of teachers who were issued regular certificates of lowest grade. The number of emergency certificates totaled 2305 in the school year 1940-41; 4655 in 1941-42; and 39,000 in 1942-43.

There is also a large decrease in the number of teachers in training. Selective Service and higher salaries in nonteaching occupations have taken their toll of students in schools of education and in teachers colleges, which have lost about one-third of their enrolment during the past two years.

Of the many remedies suggested for taking care of the growing teacher deficit, providing higher salaries is believed to hold the greatest promise. About 40 teachers in every 100 in the United States receive less than $1200 annually, while 26 of the 48 states employ some of their teachers at less than $600 a year. While costs of living in the past two years have risen more than 20 percent, salaries of teachers have risen less than 10 percent—a sharp contrast to the salary increases of factory workers during the same period.

Helping teachers to understand that education is a patriotic service is another remedial approach to the teacher-shortage situation. Other commonly used methods are the reinstatement of married women ex-teachers and the utilization of other potential teachers in the community. The provision of summer-session and graduate-session short courses for war emergency teachers is assisting greatly in improving the qualifications of emergency teachers.

An approach to ameliorating the teacher-shortage situation may be found in Bill S. 637 now before Congress. While rejected by the Senate, a similar bill is before the House Committee on Education. Its provisions include authorization of an emergency fund of $200,000,000 yearly to provide during any year in which Congress finds an emergency exists, money for the states to pay teachers' salaries for any or all of the following purposes: (1) to keep schools open for a term of not less than 160 days a year or to make suitable provisions for the pupils affected by closed schools, (2) to raise substandard salaries, (3) to reduce overcrowded classes by the employment of additional teachers, and (4) to adjust the salaries of teachers to meet the increased cost of living during the emergency. These funds would be apportioned to the states on the basis of the number of pupils in average daily attendance in public schools in each state. They would be made available for aiding public elementary schools (which may include kindergarten and nursery schools) and secondary schools.

[*Howard A. Dawson is director of the Division of Rural Service, National Education Association. Reported from* Educational Leadership, *I (October, 1943), 6-8.*]

THE first prefabricated demountable schoolhouse to be built in the East is being erected by the Federal Works Agency near Arlington, Virginia.

DISCIPLINE IN OUR TIME

LAWRENCE K. FRANK

In Childhood Education

IT cannot be too strongly emphasized that in a democratic society the question of discipline presents a problem of exceeding complexity and difficulty, especially today. It must be remembered that a free society requires the highest standard of personal ethics, of good faith, of sincere human relations and nonexploitive actions. If we aspire to a democratic social order we must aim at developing within each individual the capacity for selfregulation and selfdirection of his or her conduct. Discipline, then, becomes not a matter of submissive obedience to authority—the passive good conduct which continual threats, watchful policing, and dire punishment compel—but rather the voluntary or selfdiscipline which guides the individual and directs his conduct without an ever-present authority or police or retaliatory punishment.

This idea of selfdiscipline is not a new conception. It has been the major theme of moralists and the reiterated goal of almost every ethical and religious doctrine. Then why, we may ask, do we feel so concerned and perplexed today and anxiously search for new formulations and new procedures in the education of children? What, if anything, makes the problem of discipline any different today?

Let us begin by saying that there are many people who are untouched by any modern doubts and confusions. They accept without question the formulations and the sanctions of their traditions. But there are also many people—sincere and highminded parents and teachers of young children—who no longer can make these affirmations for themselves nor can they transmit the traditional beliefs and sanctions to chidren. It is not only that some parents and teachers can no longer accept the traditional beliefs about the world and man's place therein, about the individual's relation to group life and the ancient idea of human nature, but that they are finding these traditional conceptions seemingly responsible for some of the most tragic of human defeats and frustrations. Innumerable intensive case studies of the early life and parental practices of problem children, rebellious delinquents, and sex offenders, mentally disordered patients, alcoholics and drug addicts, and the many neurotics have made us increasingly question the old terrorizing kind of discipline. It is being indicated not only that these practices are failing to maintain social order but are directly productive of the unhappy, emotionally unbalanced personalities which contribute to social disorder.

From various studies and experiments in homes and nursery schools, in clinics and hospitals, even in institutions, it is being shown that the parental demands made on babies and young children, the many deprivations and frustrations, the continual blocking and prohibition, the incessant compulsion to do what is prescribed—all those familiar, homely practices of child rearing and preparation for social life are much more of a heavy burden on the child than we have realized.

We ask the infant to surrender his physiological autonomy, his own internal bodily regulation; to transform his organic hunger into appetite for the food we prefer, eaten at the prescribed intervals; to learn to hold the contents of his bladder and rectum. These are all necessary and unavoidable lessons to free the child from the coercion of his own organic functions and impulses so that he can be free for other activities and interests. But if they are established by persistent emotional conflict and bodily dysfunctions, the child may pay too high a price for his emancipation from his organic needs. Then also let us look at the other lessons to observe the inviolability of things and persons—what we call private property and the sanctity of the person. These the child learns by being told, "don't touch, don't take, don't hit, don't handle, don't, don't, don't," whenever he approaches these inviting objects or persons. Again he must learn all the prescribed forms of conduct, of manners and etiquette, of addressing people by their right titles with appropriate deference and respect, of acting according to the masculine and feminine roles, of speaking correctly, of responding to the various symbols and using the correct rituals.

It is indeed a complicated and devious world the child must learn to live in. He does so by having each situation defined for him by a parent or teacher who tells him what to do, what not to do, what to believe, what to think, and how to feel in every situation, and makes him conform by invoking various sanctions. This parent-teacher authority when unwisely used may cause him to conform only so long as he fears that authority. When out of sight he will rebel or seek devious disguised ways of evading it.

Here we come to the crux of the problem of discipline. For social order children must learn the patterns of conduct, of action, of speech, of belief and feelings which our culture favors. For a democratic society that cherishes human freedom and that asserts the integrity of the personality, children should learn to accept the cultural and social patterns not only in overt conduct but emotionally so that they can play their part in maintaining social order and finding fulfillment as men and women.

Social adjustment is not to some-

thing external, like gravitation. Social adjustment is how the child has been able to accept his early lessons, to live at peace within himself so that he can live at peace with others. Social order must be maintained by selfregulating conduct, by each individual doing and refraining from doing what is necessary for social order. Above all in a democratic social order which genuinely respects the human personality, each member of the group must be able to accept himself, to have a feeling of personal worth and dignity so that he will be able to accept others and to treat them with respect and dignity.

Selfdiscipline, then, is the major problem of our time. Can we maintain social order through the self-direction and emotional balance of the members of the group? This issue today is critical because the traditional beliefs and sanctions are passing. We have not yet found equivalent formulations, consistent with the new climate of opinion and our new criterions of credibility, to provide the guiding assumptions and directing conceptions we need to keep on seeking the enduring human values, the persistent aspirations of our cultural traditions.

While we await these newer formulations, we can affirm our belief in human nature, we can begin to trust human nature, confident that if we give the child love and affection, a sense of belongingness and of confidence in the world and in himself, he can accept these many and onerous lessons and grow up as an individual who likes orderly, peaceable, cooperative group living.

The question is, what kinds of personalities are we fostering by our early childhood education and disciplining? What kinds of personalities do we prefer—those who outwardly conform but are inwardly rebellious, unhappy, disturbed, often hateful and destructive but stay within the law; or do we want really social, well-balanced personalities? In the face of the increasing social disorder and confusion, it will be more and more difficult for young people to achieve sanity, but if we give them courage to face life, confidence in themselves as human beings, they can attain the same selfdisciplined maturity that we all, despite our differences, really want for our children.

[*Lawrence K. Frank is Associate Director of Education, General Education Board. Reported from* Childhood Education, *XX (September, 1943), 5-9*]

EDUCATION IN POSTWAR ENGLAND

J. W. Ansley

In the Bulletin of the Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation

STUDIES and reports of committees and panels of the Executive of the National Union of Teachers of England, coordinated and submitted to the Annual Conference of that organization, have been accepted by the delegates and now constitute Union policy. The proposals which have been set forth in the Executive's statement indicate a courageous and broad outlook. Certain of them can be implemented immediately, others will require considerable time and development before they can become actuality. The Executive defines the purpose of education as "the training of every child as an individual and his preparation for life as a member of the community." It is convinced "that equal educational opportunity for all must be an essential characteristic of any state system." By equality of opportunity, it means "that the accidents of parental circumstances of the place of residence shall not preclude any child from receiving the education from which he is best capable of profiting." Such requirements will demand not only providing proper physical equipment and accommodations, well-trained and efficient teachers, but must provide within the curriculum "sufficient variety of subject matter to cater to the differing gifts and capacities of the children involved."

The proposals of the Executive call for compulsory full-time attendance at school from 5 years until the age of 16 years. For the first two years the children would attend nursery schools. It is suggested that if the parents so desire, children from 2 to 5 years also may attend the nursery schools. From 7 years to 11 years they would attend junior or elementary schools. At 11-plus the child should enter secondary school and continue there until 16 years of age. These schools should be of three types—grammar, technical, and modern. The work of the first two years in all these schools would be general and exploratory in nature, and at 13 years a pupil may transfer to any other type of secondary school. Such a transfer would be decided on by a review of the pupil's work, the teacher's knowledge and experience of the pupil's special aptitudes and preferences, and the desires of the parents. Intelligence tests may be used to help to evaluate the pupil's ability, but should not be made the basis for assigning him to any particular type of school.

It is further advocated that education should be extended beyond the compulsory full-time period for at least another two years. Thus, up to the age of 18, the young persons should remain within the province of education and be in at-

tendance at part-time continuation, technical, commercial, or art schools or evening institutes. Attendance upon these classes should be arranged in cooperation with business or industrial firms, especially since these apprentices and learners would become more efficient and useful to their employers, and the nation's industries as a whole would benefit.

The proposals of the Executive call for a greater unification of the present educational system into a state system; organized, inspected, and controlled by the state. The primary and secondary schools in each locality should be under a single control, that is, the local educational authority. This body, working with advisory councils, would also administer the part-time education of those beyond the 16-year compulsory limit. It is felt that the state schools should be made so good in equipment, curriculum, and teaching as to excel the private schools and render them unnecessary. However, because of old established traditions, some parents may wish to send their children to private schools. If private schools continue they should be inspected by state authorities to insure that they measure up to the standard of state schools. It is felt, however, that the state should accept no responsibility for the financial support of these schools and that present state-aided private schools must decide whether or not they wish to come into the state system of general education.

One radical change very strongly advocated is the abolition of all fees in all types of secondary schools in the state system, even those beyond the compulsory attendance limit. The artificial classification of subjects into "academic" and "vocational" should be avoided. Art, music, the handicrafts, domestic subjects, and physical education should be given a larger place in the course of study, and agriculture should be a subject on the program of the rural secondary school. University or technical-college education should be made possible for any child through means of state scholarships, awarded on the basis of merit and ability to profit by such an education. The number of such scholarships should be sufficient to satisfy the needs of the whole country for educated leaders.

The health and physical well-being of the child is to be guarded during his school life throughout the entire school system. The Executive recommends that children be brought under the purview of the board of education for purposes of health or treatment of defects as soon as they are eligible for nursery education, that is, about two years of age. Special arrangements will be necessary for the education of blind, deaf, physically defective, and crippled children. These could be cared for in special residential hospital schools established under the aegis of the local educational authority.

The report also envisages the providing of free meals in the schools to make sure that children are properly nourished and kept physically fit, and even the furnishing of boots and shoes for necessitous children.

The Executive recommends that "undenominational religious instruction shall be included in the curriculum of all schools receiving money from public funds, with the existing legal right of parents to withdraw their children if they so desire." The religious instruction should be treated in the same way as other subjects of the curriculum, there should be a national syllabus for use in all schools, and timetables should be arranged so as to permit of corporate worship on the part of the whole school at the beginning of each day.

The Executive recognizes the important place of the teachers in this educational structure, and has made recommendations for improvements in their training and certification so as to insure a sufficient supply of well-trained and properly qualified teachers in order to build up a strong body of educators in all branches of education—teachers of maturity and judgment, with breadth of vision and sincerity of purpose, who will properly teach, influence, and inspire the youth of the whole land.

[*J. W. Ansley is an official of the National Union of Teachers. Reported from the* Bulletin *of the Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation, XXIII (October, 1943), 253-56.*]

DATA show that 2,153,000 pupils were enrolled in private elementary schools in 1939-40. This constituted 10.3 percent of the total enrolment in public and private kindergartens and elementary schools as compared with 10 percent in 1931-32. This slight increase in the percentage in private versus public elementary schools is not due to an increase in the number of children attending private elementary schools as there was a decrease of 171,000 pupils, or 7.4 percent, between 1932-33 and 1939-40. Rather it is due to the larger decrease in the public-school enrolment in the same period, 10.1. The private elementary school, especially the parochial school system, partly made up in enrolments in new schools what it lost because of fewer children being born.—*U. S. Office of Education.*

SOME ADVANTAGES OF ABOLISHING THE GRADING SYSTEM

DOUGLAS E. LAWSON

In School and Society

THE grading system had its chief value during the period, 50 or 75 years ago, when, particularly at the secondary level, education was somewhat competitive and only the more capable "scholars" were considered worthy of a full academic training. But the purposes of education have been modified. Today we make secondary education compulsory for many students; and theoretically at least, an elementary education is compulsory for all children, regardless of their academic ability or lack of it. Under the older system, with specific subject-matter learnings held as requirements, the grading system was a logical means of measuring the child's progress toward the ultimate goal of academic accomplishments. But today the goal is different. It is modified to place stress on adjustment, on preparation for citizenship and worthy home membership of each person, regardless of his intellectual endowments.

Education under these changing objectives has necessarily come to include much diagnosis and guidance. Both the fact that attendance is compulsory and the fact that educational guidance has assumed an individualized character seem to suggest that the grading system has outlived its usefulness. The child no longer merely attends until he has learned a certain required amount of facts and skills. Instead, he attends until he has reached a specified age, and we recognize the fact that what constitutes satisfactory performance for one child does not necessarily constitute satisfactory performance for another.

What value, then, has the traditional scheme of grade placement? It would seem much better simply to say that a given child is in his fourth year or that he is studying a specified subject. Then, without the restriction which a fixed grade-label places on him, he could study at his level of interest and understanding in each subject. This plan would mean that all children would be certificated in terms of attendance and it would suggest that all marking should be in terms of "Satisfactory" and "Unsatisfactory" to indicate not merely the quantitative achievement of the child but the judgment of his teachers and counselors concerning his efforts, his attitude, and his *relative* growth—growth judged in the light of his capacities and his former rates of progress.

Abandonment of the fixed plan of grade placement would seem to promise these educational improvements: (1) A breaking down of the present reluctance of many teachers to give special promotions, since

the system of promotions would no longer be on an annual and grade basis but would be on a subject basis, the child simply shifting from subject to subject somewhat as students now do in college or on a modified contract plan; (2) Avoidance of the humiliation for both parents and pupils when a child's academic learning capacities are limited; consequently (3) An encouraging of the tendency to select subjects that are within the range of a child's capacities since less emphasis would rest on the traditional and the academic as such; (4) Improved school attendance due to better adjustment of the individual program to the child's interests and needs; (5) Improved teaching and discipline, since teachers would be able to focus more attention on individual growth and individual needs of the child and less attention on the raw achievement scores of the class; (6) Better guidance, since the program could be adapted to the child without being restricted by our present concepts of age-grade norms.

[*Douglas E. Lawson is a member of the faculty of the Southern Illinois Normal University. Reported from* School and Society, *LVIII (September 18, 1943), 210-11.*]

WINSTON CHURCHILL on postwar education:

The future of the world is left to highly educated races who alone can handle the scientific apparatus necessary for preeminence in peace or survival in war. I hope our education will become broader and more liberal. All wisdom is not new wisdom and the past should be studied if the future is to be successfully encountered. . . .

Facilities for advanced education must be evened out and multiplied. Nobody who can take advantage of higher education should be denied this chance. You cannot conduct a modern community except with an adequate supply of persons on whose education, whether humanitarian, technical, or scientific, much money has been spent. . . .

After schooltime ends we must not throw our youth uncared for and unsupervised on the labor market, with its blind-alley occupations. . . .

We must make plans for part-time release from industry so that our young people may have the chance to carry on their general education and also to obtain specialized education which will fit them better for their work.

VALUE OF CONTROLLED READING

ARTHUR E. TRAXLER

In the Journal of Experimental Education

AMONG the controversial questions relating to methods of teaching pupils to read, perhaps none has been debated more persistently and vigorously in recent years than the question of the importance and value of training in the mechanics of eye-movements. It is known that good readers have regular eye-movements and that poor readers do not. On that point, there is a wealth of incontrovertible evidence. There is, however, a difference of opinion concerning the significance of the relationship between eye-movements and reading skill. Some authorities regard the complex of psychological factors involved in reading comprehension as the all-important thing and hold that eye-movements are only symptoms of the effectiveness of comprehension. They insist that if pupils are instructed in such a way that they learn to understand what they read, their eye-movements will as a rule be satisfactorily mature.

Others believe that faulty eye-movements are frequently the cause of reading inefficiency and that noteworthy improvement in reading skill may be brought about by direct training of eye-movements. As a result of this point of view, certain instruments have been developed to "pace" reading speed. One of them is the metron-o-scope, a triple-action electrically operated tachistoscope consisting of three synchronized rotary drums designed to present successive thirds of a line of reading matter. When the first line of a selection has been presented, the second line appears in the same manner through the same openings, and so on until the entire selection has been read. A group of people may read from the metron-o-scope at one time. Through the use of different rolls of reading matter prepared for the metron-o-scope, a certain amount of variety can be introduced.

The other outstanding device for use in a program of controlled reading is the Harvard Films for the Improvement of Reading. Under this plan, the reading material is projected on a screen, and successive phrases or thought units of the material are lighted up. The reader's eyes follow the lighted portion of the screen, and thus the number and duration of his eye-movements are largely controlled. The films, like the metron-o-scope, can be used with a group.

The Harvard Films provide somewhat more flexibility than the metron-o-scope, but the basic theory back of the two devices is about the same. The instruments have sharpened and brought to a focus the difference of opinion among reading specialists concerning the value of training in the mechanical aspects of the reading process.

William S. Gray, in one of his summaries of research in reading, commented on "remedial techniques which have excited wide attention." He mentioned the use of the flash meter in developing greater accuracy in perceiving words, as well as the use of the metron-o-scope and films in "presenting reading material under controlled conditions of word spacing and time in order to stimulate directional movements of the eye in reading, to increase the speed of recognition, and to increase speed of reading. Evidence has already been secured of the value of each of these devices," he said, but added, "Their superiority to other methods of achieving the same ends has not been experimentally established."

Guy T. Buswell's researches in eye-movement habits some 20 years ago have been regarded by some workers in the field of reading as providing a factual basis for controlled reading. There is justification for this conclusion but Buswell himself has warned against purely mechanical eye-movement training. "It is highly important that teachers understand the situation clearly," he says, and states, "Of course reading involves peripheral adjustments through eye-movements, but training eye-movements does not increase reading ability." He comments on the "exploiting of machines and gadgets by persons who do not understand the psychology of reading" and "amateurish practices" which "should not be permitted to discredit scientific techniques, which when legitimately used, possess real value." "Apparatus can never be a substitute for educational theory," he declares, "it only implements educational theory at certain points."

Miles A. Tinker, who over a period of many years has contributed numerous eye-movement studies to the literature on reading, stated in one of his articles that there is lack of evidence that training eye-movements, as such, develops effective habits which improve reading ability, and held that eye-movement patterns do not cause, but merely reflect, efficient or poor reading performance.

Some critics are quite outspoken. The point of view of a supervisor of a remedial project in a large city was expressed by Will Scarlet who said, "Research studies have not yet substantiated the claims made for the machines. Rhythm reading, reading for speed — these are but nostrums hawked about in the educational marketplace." Richard Pliant in a recent article said, "Reading worthy of the name is more than speed, eye-movements, muscle exercise, optical correction—it is understanding, a way of learning what one wants to know."

Actually, the results of the research studies that have been conducted thus far do not provide clear-cut evidence either favorable or unfavorable to controlled read-

ing. However within certain limitations, it appears that the findings are somewhat more favorable to the value of controlled reading techniques than is the sum total of the opinion of experts in the field of reading. Most of the studies do suggest that considerable improvement is made under teaching procedures employing controlled reading.

The logic of the argument of those who hold that comprehension is all-important and that eye-movements are a result and not a cause of reading ability seems so sound to the writer that he has difficulty in seeing any justification for purely mechanical attempts to train pupils in better eye-movement habits. It is his opinion, however, that controlled reading techniques need not be used in a purely mechanical way but that they might well be used to supplement, in a way that would have strong motivating force, a program in which the building up of reading comprehension is emphasized. It is possible, as some reading specialists have suggested, that controlled reading procedures have important values aside from the question of the correctness of direct training of eye-movements as such.

At any rate, it seems evident that controlled reading techniques should have the benefit of a more extensive, detailed, and rigidly controlled experimental study than has yet been made in this area. Two questions are particularly pertinent: (1) Can an experienced teacher of reading get better results through the use of instruments for controlled reading than he can obtain with more conventional procedures of reading instruction? (2) Can an inexperienced teacher of reading bring about as much improvement in his pupils by employing controlled reading techniques as a good experienced teacher can secure through more informal procedures carefully planned and carried out? A large scale study of this kind would call for the cooperation of classroom teachers, psychologists, and statisticians. If the study were sufficiently comprehensive and were thoroughly defensible from experimental and statistical consideration, it would be of much practical help to teachers of reading in elementary schools, high schools, and colleges throughout the United States.

[*Arthur E. Traxler is a staff member of the Educational Records Bureau, New York City. Reported from the* Journal of Experimental Education, *(June, 1943), 280-92.*]

APPROXIMATELY half of the colleges normally playing football have had to drop the sport this fall.

VISUAL AIDS IN CLEVELAND SCHOOLS

M. R. KLEIN

In the Educational Screen

"OUR school needs a projector for sound films for a special patriotic program next week; what war information films are available, and can your department help us?" "The art department has organized a high-school course on camouflage; may we have sets of lantern slides prepared for such work?" "Can your department furnish this school with a good photograph of President Roosevelt?" "The physical welfare department needs slides and films on good posture."

These are typical of the requests for service the Educational Museum receives from departments of instruction in the Cleveland Public Schools. Are such requests granted? By and large, they are. If the demands are reasonable and within the scope of the services delegated to this department, a determined effort is made to comply with each request. Most of the calls are for the eventual use of the classroom teacher and her pupils and it is the policy of the department to furnish materials that may concretize and enrich instruction.

The Educational Museum, comprising about 6500 square feet of floor space located in Gladstone School, is a department financed by the Board of Education. It operates closely with teachers, principals, and subject supervisors as a "visual" center for all of the 158 public schools in Cleveland. It circulates generally five types of materials: (1) 16mm sound and silent films, (2) lantern slides, (3) mounted photographs, (4) exhibits in plywood cases, and (5) various charts. Service is rendered on a weekly delivery schedule to the respective schools. Practically all of the materials are organized and correlated with the courses of study for the elementary, junior, and senior high school levels.

The staff personnel of the Museum consists of a director, teacher assistant, office secretary and accessions clerk, film booking clerk, slide and exhibit booking clerk, order and filing clerks, film inspectors, mechanical handyman, delivery truck driver, and helper. Much of the work of the Museum consists of organizing and preparing the visual-aid materials for circulation. The school radio station is administered and staffed separately from that of the Educational Museum, the latter assuming the responsibility of visualizing the radio presentations. The Museum furnishes the schools with slide and film projectors and other needed equipment. Demonstrations are given by staff members to the school faculties on request, where new films may be viewed, slides shown, or help offered and suggestions made toward better utilization of

visual materials. Our staff is called on to present materials at department meetings for science teachers, mathematics teachers, vocational guidance groups, Parent-Teacher meetings, and others.

Another of the services of the Educational Museum is the issuance of various catalogs for the schools, such as *Classified Listing of Titles for Sound and Silent Films, Descriptive Catalog of Sound and Silent Films, Lantern Slide Listings,* and *Mounted Pictures and Charts.* Also listings of films for various departments such as vocational guidance, social studies, and science are available. It has proved worthwhile to issue separate listings for specific subject matter, so that teachers save time in ordering films for their respective area of instruction.

One page in the classified listing of films contains "Suggested Techniques in Utilizing Classroom Films." So that more teachers may know of such techniques, they are reprinted below:

1. The teacher should preview the film prior to showing it to her class. Like studying a new textbook before use with classes, it is a distinct advantage for a teacher to preview films.

2. The teacher should prepare pupils for seeing the films by giving a very brief discussion or explanation. Lengthy introductions detract from the interest of the pupils.

3. It is best to show films where classes meet daily, or in a room especially set up for film projection.

4. Preparation of the room and having equipment in place for film showing should be accomplished with minimum delay and disturbance.

5. Films shown for the first time to a class should be run through without interruption.

6. Subsequent showings may be interrupted for asking questions.

7. Attitudes of study may be developed by pupils by having them concentrate on the major idea of the film, ask questions, remember facts, discover problems, and gain information.

8. The film may suggest the use of other visual aids supplementing the lesson, such as maps, still pictures, graphs, lantern slides, books, and magazines.

9. The teacher should list questions for discussion as a follow-up, along with the vocabulary of the film which may need clarifying.

10. Pupils may gain ideas from the film for follow-up work, such as making posters, developing charts and cartoons, and writing themes or verses.

11. The teacher may require a written report on the film.

Several recent visual-aid projects may be mentioned. An extensive series of slides has been prepared in cooperation with the music department and Severance Hall, home of the Cleveland Orchestra. The supervisor of music appreciation as-

sisted in this work by writing an interesting script to accompany the slides. Another recent project, sponsored by the industrial arts department, is a series of slides being prepared for aircraft identification and drawing. The high schools, in addition, are receiving an interesting and timely set of slides on "camouflage" sponsored by the art department. A new third-grade social studies set of slides is in preparation to be used with radio lessons, and a set of fourth-grade slides, mostly in colors, has recently been sent to elementary schools. Other school departments are preparing material for organization into slide sets, photographs, and motion pictures for use in various fields of study next semester.

Another addition has been a number of government-sponsored films for the science and mathematics departments of the high schools, which may book these for showing in correlation with preflight courses in these teaching areas.

Increased demands for all types of new visual media have been made by schools especially since our entry into the present world-wide war. More teachers are using slides and films than ever before, but insist more and more on modern and up-to-date aids.

[*M. R. Klein is Director of the Educational Museum, Cleveland, Ohio, Public Schools. Reported from the* Educational Screen, *XXII (September, 1943), 236-38.*]

Russia Rises

In 12 liberated regions, out of 18,000 schools destroyed by the Germans, 10,000 are already repaired and open. In the first half of 1943 about 2,000,000 textbooks were sent to the liberated districts as well as 3,300,000 exercise books and over 2,000,000 roubles worth of school accessories. Provision of an additional 1,000,000 textbooks before the beginning of the new school year is planned.

Simultaneously, 280 children's homes have been organized in liberated areas with the object of adopting children or returning lost children to their families. For children's institutions in liberated districts the Peoples Commissariat for Education has sent manufactured articles — clothing, knitted goods and leather boots—to the value of 4,649,000 roubles.

In the Smolensk region 421 rural reading rooms are functioning and over 300 district and town libraries have been opened recently for the use of the public.

EARLY ADMISSION TO COLLEGE

CHARLES W. BOARDMAN

In the School Review

ON November 22, 1942, the Educational Policies Commission adopted a resolution proposing, as a war-emergency program, the educational acceleration of selected high-school pupils by admitting them to college at the completion of Grade XI of high school. This resolution has precipitated widespread discussion of the merits of such acceleration of students, approval and disapproval being expressed by individuals or groups representing both secondary and higher education. Some of this discussion has misrepresented the proposal and confused the issues, for it has been phrased in language which has seemed to suggest that any student who may wish to do so is to be permitted to enter college at the completion of Grade XI. The resolution specifically states, however, that only selected students who, in the judgment of high-school and college authorities, will profit from a year's college education are to be granted the privilege of entering college at the close of Grade XI.

From a survey of articles and editorials discussing this proposal which have appeared in professional periodicals between January 1 and May 1, 1943, the following issues seem to emerge: (1) Do young students possess sufficient mental ability and maturity to achieve success in college courses? (2) Are not the staff, curriculum, methods of instruction, and equipment at the senior year in high school better adapted to serve the needs of these young students than are similar agencies at the freshman year in college? (3) Will not such students be better served by acceleration within the secondary school so that essential learnings and experiences may be acquired before entering college rather than by acceleration as a result of skipping the final year of high school? (4) Do such young students possess sufficient social and emotional maturity to be accepted socially by students of normal college age, to participate successfully in extra-curriculum activities in college, and to acquire training and experience in traits such as leadership?

Acceleration is not a new concept in American education. The literature relating to the articulation of secondary and higher education, particularly that published since 1900, contains many reports of studies of acceleration and the findings of these studies are of value in the present discussion of the issues arising from the proposal of the Educational Policies Commission.

So far as scholastic achievement, persistence in college, and scholastic honors are concerned representative studies show the same trend. Students entering college at 17 years of

age or younger achieve as well as older students of equal ability and scholastic aptitude, and they achieve far better than the average student entering college at normal age or older. Since all the students in these studies were high-school graduates, it is evident that they were also accelerated in high school and that they had received whatever values accrued from being exposed to the instructional activities in Grade XII. Hence the only conclusion that can be drawn from these studies is that students who enter college young are able to achieve successfully. And Terman, in a follow-up study of the persons who were included in his studies of genius, comments, "The earlier they enter college, the better work they do there, at least down to an entrance age of 15 years."

Questionnaires have been used by a number of inquirers to obtain the opinions of college students and alumni who had entered college at 17 years or younger and those who had entered at more than the normal age to gain information concerning their academic and social adjustment in college. Responding to one of these, the younger group felt that they should have entered college a little later, and the older group felt that they should have entered a little earlier. Yet, on the whole, the accelerated groups who felt that the skipping of grades had been a handicap achieved as great academic success and participated in social life and activities at least as much as those who did not have this feeling. One author suggests that these feelings of disability resulted from their superior standards of achievement, and another that the feeling of being handicapped arose from their feeling that they were different from their fellows; that parents, teachers or others emphasized whatever differences may have been present by talking about them before the younger students; and that many parents attempted to exercise greater home control over the younger than over the older students. Terman, in the follow-up of the groups in his study of genius, stated that in both high school and college these young students received more than their proportionate share of class and student-body honors and participated more extensively than their older classmates in all extra-curriculum activities except athletics.

The conclusions from the studies of the ability of accelerated college social life and activities in college students to adjust themselves to the are clear. Apparently very few accelerated students find any difficulty in becoming adjusted to academic work in college. Likewise, students who are markedly young at college entrance have sufficient social and emotional maturity to be accepted in the social life and activities in college. In general, the proportions of older students who seem to have difficulties in adjustment in college

are very similar to those of the younger students. Youth, per se, does not seem to be a handicap to adjustment to the college situation.

But the studies from which the foregoing conclusions were made are all concerned with students who had had four years of high-school education and were high-school graduates. The findings of experimental studies now being conducted in which students have been admitted to college from Grade XI may have significant implications. Although the number of these experimental studies is limited and incomplete, all possess certain common characteristics. The accelerated students in each case were selected on the basis of intelligence and of performance on one or more standard tests. In age they were one year or more younger than the normal college entrant. No special adjustments were made for them in college, all pursuing the usual college courses in the regular classes. The findings of these studies all have the same trend: skipping Grade XII does not seem to have deprived the students ot any essential learnings or experiences necessary for college success, for the accelerated students achieved as well as, or better than, the normal college entrants who were high-school graduates. It seems that such selected students possess adequate mental ability and mental maturity to achieve successfully in college. Likewise, so far as evidence is available, it seems to indicate that these young students possess sufficient social and emotional maturity to be accepted by students of normal age, to participate in college activities, and to acquire training and experience as leaders in college activities.

The findings reported here do not prove the case but they offer considerable support to the proposal of the Educational Policies Commission that selected students be admitted to college when they have attained senior status in high school. Rather than arbitrarily opposing or refusing to cooperate in this proposal, it would seem far wiser for our colleges and secondary schools to join in an experiment in the selection and early admission to college of superior college-bound students. Using proper measures and proper controls both in the secondary school and in college, such an experimental program could add much not only to our knowledge about superior students but also to our knowledge of better practices and procedures in their education.

[*Charles W. Boardman is Professor of Education at the University of Minnesota. Reported from the* School Review, *LI (October, 1943), 460-70.*]

TEACHERS' SALARIES—AN OUTLINE FOR DISCUSSION

J. B. Edmonson

In the Virginia Journal of Education

THERE is great need for more thoughtful discussion of teachers' salaries. Too frequently discussions of the subject are charged with emotion to such an extent that little light is thrown on the salary problem. In order to stimulate constructive discussion, this accompanying outline has been prepared. The outline is so arranged that it may serve the purposes of an opinionnaire and thus secure the judgments of teachers on the relative importance of the various statements.

I. *Some attitudes and conditions that may tend to depress teachers' salaries.*—There is no one explanation for low salaries. Some of the many contributing factors are listed below:

1. The American tradition that public officials should not be well paid and should not receive salaries as attractive as those offered in private business. 3 2 1*

2. The widespread opinion that teaching is part-time work, since there are usually from 12 to 16 weeks of vacation during which it is assumed teachers may secure profitable employment.

3. The presence in the profession of a large number of teachers who are not fully dependent on their salaries, such as married women whose husbands are employed, and young women who are teaching for a few years prior to marriage. 3 2 1

4. The fact that salaries for inexperienced teachers are relatively high as compared with earnings during a first year in other professions. 3 2 1

5. The attitude of many taxpayers that the salary for the typical teacher need be no higher than that required to secure the services of an unmarried woman with no dependents, with little experience, and who expects to guarantee her financial future in marriage. 3 2 1

6. The failure of the profession to protect itself against the competition of beginners who are generally overpaid for the quality of the service rendered. 3 2 1

7. The tendency of some employing officials to emphasize "cheapness" rather than quality in the selection of new teachers. 3 2 1

8. The inability of the teaching profession to develop widespread support for a code of ethics in which "underbidding" is defined as unethical. 3 2 1

9. The fact that the average teacher's monthly salary over a five-year period is likely to be higher than the average monthly wage of 50 percent of the homes represented in the typical school. 3 2 1

10. The difficulty of proving that classroom teachers increase their

*Scale: very important, 1: fairly important, 2; of little importance, 3.

competency by additional experience after approximately seven years. 3 2 1

11. The reluctance of the teaching profession to give strong support to efforts to raise requirements for admission and promotion in teaching. 3 2 1

12. The failure of the profession to develop effective means of controlling the supply of new teachers. (It should be noted that colleges generally seek to increase their output of new teachers regardless of the demands of the market.) 3 2 1

13. The widespread belief that good schools have been provided and will continue to be provided even though teachers' salaries are low. 3 2 1

14. The lack of scientific bases for degrees of preparation, experience, and competence as well as for differences in living costs. 3 2 1

15. The fact that much of the money required for the operation of schools is derived from local taxes, with the result that any increase in teachers' salaries is considered as an additional burden on the taxpayers of the community. 3 2 1

16. The belief that teachers are compensated in part through retirement annuities, security of position, employment during depression periods, and opportunity for employment after the age of 55. 3 2 1

17. The presence in most cities of a large number of former teachers who in a depression period seek re-employment in the schools. 3 2 1

18. The persistent opposition to generous support for public education on the part of some influential leaders and a few pressure groups. 3 2 1

19. The failure of the teaching profession to push the adoption of long-term programs designed to improve school support and the salary situation on a state and national scale. 3 2 1

II. *Some unjustified opinions regarding salaries.* — Teachers frequently express such opinions on the salaries as are typified in the following statements:

1. That workers in factories are overpaid if teachers' salaries are relatively lower. 3 2 1

2. That teachers' salaries would be higher if salaries of administrative officers were lowered. 3 2 1

3. That parents are unappreciative if they do not demand higher salaries for teachers. 3 2 1

4. That a given school board is entirely to blame if salaries are not relatively high. 3 2 1

5. That the salary question is strictly a local problem rather than one with state and national implications. 3 2 1

6. That frequent complaints about the heavy burdens of teachers and their small salaries are effective means of securing higher salaries.

III. *What is an adequate salary?* —Teachers want salaries that will enable them to maintain a professional standard of living in the community where they are employed.

This would require an annual income for the typical teacher as large as that of the average worker who is engaged in service requiring two or more years of preparation beyond high-school graduation. The question, "What is an adequate salary?" has also been answered as follows: "A successful teacher can never be paid all that he is worth either to the individual child or to society. Yet few will deny that every teaching position should pay enough (1) to attract young persons of the highest personal and professional qualifications; (2) to hold in teaching those who, beginning with first-class qualities, continue to improve themselves through experience, travel, and further study; (3) to permit those who remain in teaching to live with the material and the cultural surroundings commensurate with their responsibilities to youth and to the state; (4) to provide savings whereby those incapacitated by age or disability may retire in decency, making way for a new generation of teachers."

IV. *Some features of a long-term program for improving the financial status of teachers.*—It woud seem advisable for the profession to consider the value of some such proposals as the following:

1. Seek to decrease the school's dependence for financial support on taxes from the local community. 3 2 1

2. Assist in preparing as attractive salary schedules as state and local conditions will warrant. 3 2 1

3. Aid in the extension to all teachers of such assistance as is represented by group insurance, health services, pensions, credit unions, and similar cooperative services. 3 2 1

4. Devise plans for furnishing more complete information to school boards and other citizens concerning the salaries required for high standards of teaching service. 3 2 1

5. Support plans to provide equal pay for equal preparation, experience, and responsibility in all fields of endeavor, not only teaching. 3 2 1

6. Support continuing studies of the effective means of (1) promoting economies in the operation of schools; (2) raising funds for school support; (3) selecting and promoting teaching personnel; (4) restricting the teacher supply in terms of demand of the market. 3 2 1

7. Support efforts to define high requirements for admission to teaching. 3 2 1

8. Cooperate in movements to raise the standard of living of all wage earners. 3 2 1

9. Develop effective plans for protecting the pupils and the public against the continued employment of relatively incompetent teachers. 3 2 1

10. Seek to correct factors responsible for low salaries (listed in Part I). 3 2 1

11. Encourage greater unity of effort on the part of professional

organizations in matters pertaining to the protection of children and youth. 3 2 1

12. Stress the right of boys and girls to enjoy superior instruction rather than the right of teachers to receive higher salaries. 3 2 1

13. Seek to avoid costly disagreements before the taxpayers by unnecessary conflicts over salaries between teachers and administrators or between a school board and the teaching profession. 3 2 1

14. Give the public more information regarding the scope and achievements of our education system. 3 2 1

15. Build stronger state and national professional organizations and draft our best talent for places of professional leadership. 3 2 1

V. *Selected questions for discussion.*

1. Which of the statements in Part I did you check as "Very important?" In Part II? In Part IV?

2. What is your opinion of the feasibility of the methods of determining salaries as suggested in Part III?

3. What are the arguments for and against a salary schedule?

4. Should local salaries provide a differential for the heads of families?

5. Does a state minimum salary law help to improve the local salaries for teachers?

[*J. B. Edmonson is Dean of the School of Education, University of Michigan. Reported from the* Virginia Journal of Education, *XXXVII (September, 1943), 40-42.*]

A DECLARATION of the modern democratic faith" was presented by Carl Becker, professor of history, Cornell University, in an address delivered last spring at a celebration of Jefferson's birthday. We are reprinting this statement from *School and Society* because it points to aims which could be developed in education for the betterment of future citizens.

"We hold these truths to be selfevident: that the individual man has dignity and worth in his own right; that it is better to be governed by persuasion than by force; that fraternal good will is of greater worth than a selfish and contentious spirit; that in the long run all values, both for the individual and for society, are inseparable from the love of truth and the disinterested search for it; that the truth can be discovered only in so far as the mind of man is free; that knowledge and the power it gives should be used for promoting the welfare and happiness of all men rather than for the selfish interests of those individuals and classes whom intelligence and fortune have endowed with a temporary advantage; and that no form of government yet invented is so well adapted to realize these high ends as one . . . designed to be a government of the people, by the people, for the people."

SURVIVAL RATES OF PUPILS

In Education for Victory

THE U. S. Office of Education has compiled statistics and made estimates on public-school grade enrolments as far back as 1906-7, from which the ever-increasing "survival" of pupils through the school system to high-school and college graduation can be studied. These statistics show a continual increase in the amount of education obtained by each successive group of pupils, fewer dropouts, and increases in the number of pupils that stay in school for longer periods.

From the fifth grade through college.—Survival rates are based on enrolments in the fifth, rather than the first grade, because of the large number of retarded pupils included in the enrolments in the first four grades. Of every 1000 pupils in the class that entered the fifth grade in 1906, only 23 were graduated from college in 1918; but of every 1000 grades. Of every 1000 pupils in the fifth grade in 1929, 71 were graduated from college in 1941. Thus, in 23 years there has been a 200 percent increase in the holding power of the schools from the fifth grade through college.

From the fifth grade through high school.—Of every 1000 pupils who entered the fifth grade in 1906, only 139 remained to graduate from high school in 1914, but of every 1000 who entered the fifth grade in 1934, 440 remained to graduate from high school in 1942. This was 36 fewer than the 476 graduating in 1941 of the class that entered the fifth grade in 1933. This shows the beginning of the effect of the war on high-school graduation. In the 28-year period, the survival rate through high school increased 215 percent.

Since no correction has been made for the normal number of deaths, it is probable that more than half of the pupils who enter school remain to graduate from high school, if still alive, which means that the median educational level of the adult population will rapidly rise from the completion of elementary school only, to the completion of high school. It also means that approximately half of the children must be prepared to take their part in the social and economic life of the community in fewer than 12 years of education or through an out-of-school program *after* they have left school.

From high-school entrance through college graduation.—The proportion of the pupils who entered high school and continued through graduation from college has increased steadily from 86 per 1000 in 1936 to 94 in 1940 and 1941.

The proportion of those entering high school and remaining to graduate has constantly increased. Of every 1000 pupils entering high school in 1927, only 465 were graduated in

1931; but of every 1000 entering high school in 1938, 549 were graduated in 1942. This is 52 pupils fewer than were graduated in 1941 of 1000 who entered high school in 1937.

It is also interesting to note the relationship of those entering high school to those who enter college. Of 1000 entering high school in 1927, there were 210 who entered college in 1931; but 10 years later, of 1000 entering high school only 184 entered college in 1941. This is 15 fewer persons than the 199 entering college in 1939 of 1000 who entered high school in 1935. This decrease in the long-term trend, however, does not mean that fewer persons are going to college but that more are going to high school for other purposes than to prepare for college.

From high-school graduation to college entrance.—What proportion of those who graduate from high school continue on to college? There was a decline in the early years of the economic depression, a drop from 451 in 1931 to 353 in 1933 per 1000; and an increase to 386 per 1000 with the availability of scholarships from the Federal Emergency Relief Administration beginning in 1934. With the gradual broadening of the high-school curriculum to include other than college preparatory courses, a large proportion of students have remained to graduate from high school, but a smaller proportion of those who graduate continue on to college. This downward trend is to be expected as the high school becomes less and less a college preparatory institution. Only 306 entered college of the 1000 who were graduated from high school in 1941, which was 52 fewer than the 358 who entered college of 1000 who were graduated from high school in 1939. This shows the immediate effect of war on the continuation of education in college.

From college entrance through college graduation.—The proportion of those entering high school and graduating from college has only changed from 88 to 94 per 1000 in the 6 years from 1935 to 1941. The proportion of those entering college and remaining to graduate from college increased in these 6 years from 418 to 512 per 1000 entering college. Up to the summer of 1941, the war had not affected the general upward trend in the holding power of colleges.

[*Reported from* Education for Victory, *II (September 1, 1943), 13-14.*]

LET'S USE GRAMMATICAL TERMS

WINTHROP H. RICE

In the Modern Language Journal

READERS in the literature of foreign-language methodology know how frequently we language teachers are scolded by our colleagues in other fields — and even by some writers on language methodology— for our insistence on the use of grammatical terms. We are told that we must not expect our students, especially in high school, to be familiar with a technical terminology "beyond their grasp" when all they need is to know how to read—and perhaps to write and speak a little.

I wish to take vigorous exception to this point of view. There is no reason that I can see why language teachers alone must deny themselves the convenience and the time-saving qualities (to say nothing of the efficiency) of a "technical" vocabulary.

One day, not very long ago, I discussed this topic with my group in language methods. That very evening it happened that my high-school-junior son regaled the family dinner-table with a discourse on *mitosis* and its four stages: *prophase, metaphase, anaphase,* and *telephase.* It was with pride, pleasure, and understanding that he did so, nor did he feel that he was doing anything exceptional nor using terms beyond his grasp.

If the science teacher can speak of *mitosis* instead of *cell-division,* why cannot the language teacher speak of *adjectives* for example, instead of *descriptive* words? High-school pupils are called on to be familiar with the meanings of a specialized vocabulary often much harder to grasp than ours. Here is a ninth-grade civics book which mentions the "rights of primogeniture"; which talks of a "modified Australian ballot" without telling what an Australian ballot was like before being modified. Or look at this general science book where a cursory glance at the index brings out a few choice items such as: anaërobic bacteria, cotyledon, effluvia, haustoria, hypocaust, kinescope, mastication (but chewing is not listed). The authors found it necessary to provide a glossary where the pupil could find out what the terms meant. But no, the language teacher must not speak of *subject* and *object,* nor of *clauses dependent or independent,* nor of *conjunctions* whether *coordinating* or *subordinating!*

I am not criticizing others for using "technical" terms. I am all for it, and more power to them. Should the boy in the auto-mechanics course hesitate to speak of *clutch* or *wrist-pin* or of various valves each with its own special name which I, nonmechanical being that I am, don't know? Does he call a monkey-wrench a "whatsis" or any other of a hundred tools a "thingamabob"? Pupils, it seems to me, get a cer-

tain satisfaction out of calling things by their right names, and if in doing so they can flabbergast the adults around them, so much the better—they feel that they are "in the know."

Of all the various "jargons" to which the pupil is exposed, there is probably none wherein the terms are more meaningful than in grammar. One is moved to wonder how it is possible to do any amount of grammatical instruction in even the most informal and functional approaches without using the names of the tools and component parts of languages. The most important thing to remember is that the terms must be defined. When this is done, there is no reason why grammatical terms should be any more beyond the grasp of high-school pupils than the terms which they are called on to learn and use in other subjects. And if it is possible, through the previous experience of the pupils, to base this definition on the derivation of the terms from their Latin roots, not only do the terms have no terrors but the understanding of them is much clearer than it otherwise might be. A pupil who thinks of a subordinate clause as one which is "under the orders" of another has gone a long way toward understanding the relationship, and when he thinks of the subjunctive as "joined under" and hence *de-pendent* (hanging down from), its mysteries begin to fade away.

Therefore, I for one say let us use our terms within the bounds of reason, but let us be sure to define them so that the definition may carry with it some idea of the function indicated by the term. Erudition means little to the high-school pupil, but the names of the tools of language can mean a great deal, and this meaning is certainly not above his level. Do you want correlation? Compare the grammatical term *passive* with *passive resistance*, or a *coördinating* conjunction with the role of the present oil *coördinator*. Grammatical terms, viewed thus, are far more within the ken of the average pupil than many of the terms which he meets and conquers in his science or mechanics classes, and their use aids materially in the smooth functioning of instruction.

(The high-school junior aforementioned, on being shown these reflections, remarked, not without surprise, "Golly, there *is* some sense in that!"—A prophet is not without honor, etc.)

[*Winthrop H. Rice is a member of the faculty at Syracuse University. Reported from the* Modern Language Journal, *XXVII (October, 1943), 400-2.*]

PERSONALITIES: **Wilford M. Akin,** former director of the Eight-Year Study of Secondary Schools under the sponsorship of the Progressive Education Association, has been appointed curriculum consultant, Bennett College, Greensboro, N. C. . . . **Mrs. Helen Hunter Griswold** is the new executive secretary of the National Association of Deans of Women, succeeding **Mrs. Harriett Kurtz** who will return to aviation work. Mrs. Griswold has been writing motion-picture scripts for the Bureau of Motion Pictures of the OWI. . . . **George Thomas Walker,** state supervisor of commercial education for Louisiana, has taken a "duration" leave of absence to become civilian training director for the Port of Embarkation at New Orleans. . . . **Joseph A. Brandt,** president, University of Oklahoma, has been appointed director, University of Chicago Press. His assistant director will be **Rollins Hemens** who has been associated with the Press for the past 20 years. . . . **Maurice J. Thomas,** formerly at Columbia University, is the new superintendent of schools at Rochester, Minn. . . . **Lawrence Hoffman van den Berg,** president, State Teachers College, New Paltz, N. Y., died recently. . . . **S. J. Freed** is a new member of the chemistry faculty at Central Michigan College of Education, having been superintendent at Bergland, Mich., for the past three years. . . . **W. T. Boyce,** former economics instructor, Fullerton, Calif., Junior College, succeeds **Samuel H. Cortez** as director of the college. Dr. Cortez has entered military service. . . . **Lawrence T. Thomson** is the newly appointed chief of the Business Education Division of the Michigan State Board of Control for Vocational Education, succeeeding **Jack Milligan** who has received a commission in the U. S. Naval Reserve. . . . **Jacob DeWitt** and **John Brickner,** both of Paw Paw, Mich., are teaching physics and commerce courses respectively at Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo. . . . **Elmer M. Weltzin,** former superintendent of schools, Warren, Minn., has been appointed director of graded elementary and secondary schools in the Minnesota State Department of Education. Mr. Weltzin succeeds **R. B. MacLean.** . . . **Clarence R. Wolever** has been named assistant professor of education at Pennsylvania State College, succeeding **Vernon G. Schaefer** who resigned to accept a position as personnel director for Radio Corporation of America in Lancaster. . . . New members of the mathematics and history departments respectively at Nebraska State Teachers College, Wayne, are **C. H. Lindahl** and **Floyd A. Miller.** Mr. Lindahl, who replaces **E. Marie Hove,** was the former superintendent of schools, Kimball; Mr. Miller at Pierce. . . . **Francis Peterson** has been named state supervisor of distributive education for Oregon. . . . **Ira D. Vay-**

hinger is the president of Cedarville, Ohio, College. . . . **William Otis Hotchkiss,** president, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy, N. Y., has become president emeritus. . . . **Robert E. Finch** has been appointed supervisor of commercial education for the public schools of Cincinnati, Ohio. . . . **J. I. Riddle,** professor of education, Alabama College, Montevallo, has been named president, Judson College, Marion, Ala. . . . **Toni Taylor,** head of the child-training department, *McCall's Magazine,* is the new editor of *Progressive Education* and **Eunice Fuller Barnard,** former educational editor, the *New York Times,* is associate editor. . . . **Nina Clover,** director of business education in the Akron, Ohio, public schools, has been selected by the Hawaii Department of Education to become the first supervisor of business education in Hawaii. . . . **Archie J. Cloud,** president, San Francisco Junior College, Calif., is the new president of the Western Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. . . . **Robert M. Winger,** former commercial teacher and coordinator of the cooperative program at Wilbur Wright Vocational High School, Detroit, Mich., has been appointed supervisor of distributive education by the Michigan State Board of Control for Vocational Education. . . . **Viola Theman,** former consultant in elementary education, East Orange, N. J., is the new assistant professor of education, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia. **Helen A. Field,** professor of education there, has resigned. . . . **Mary L. Williamson,** who formerly taught courses in distributive education in several stores in Corpus Christi, Texas, has been appointed state supervisor of distributive education for Iowa. . . . **Clyde W. Humphrey** has been appointed special agent for research in business education in the U. S. Office of Education to succeed **Earl P. Strong** who was commissioned a lieutenant (j.g.) in the Navy. . . . **Homer W. Anderson,** former superintendent of schools, St. Louis, Mo., and for the past year director of the Education Section, War Finance Division, U. S. Treasury Department, has been appointed acting superintendent of schools at Newton, Mass. . . . **Harry S. Ganders,** dean, school of education, Syracuse University, has assumed the acting deanship of the Graduate School, succeeding **William L. Bray** who retired. . . . **Roland J. Carpenter,** superintendent of schools, Presque Isle, Me., has been elected to the superintendency, Bangor, Me. . . . **Rudolph D. Lindquist,** director, Cranbrook Schools, Bloomfield Hills, Mich., is the new superintendent of schools, Santa Barbara, Calif. The **Rev. Charles H. Cadigan** will act as director until Dr. Lindquist's successor can be chosen. . . . **Clark G. Kuebler,** associate professor of classical languages, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill., is the new president of Ripon Col-

lege, Wis. . . . **Prudence Cutright,** assistant superintendent of schools, Minneapolis, has been appointed acting superintendent to complete the term of **N. B. Schoonmaker.** . . . **H. C. Brier,** former associate professor of geography, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., has been appointed head of the department of geography, State Teachers College, Troy, Ala. . . . The following committee has been appointed by the NEA to conduct an investigation of the schools in New York City: **Orville C. Pratt,** former superintendent of schools, Spokane, Wash., chairman; **Ernest O. Melby,** chancellor, University of Montana; **Mabel Studebaker,** science teacher, Erie, Pa.; and **Donald DuShane,** executive secretary, National Commission to Defend Democracy through Education, NEA. . . . **Mary Watson,** principal, Stronghurst School, Bernalillo County, N. M., is director of elementary education for New Mexico. . . . **Rudolph G. Schulz, Jr.,** former president, Carthage College, Ill., is pastor of St. John's Lutheran Church, Knoxville, Tenn. . . . New members of the faculty of Eastern Oregon College of Education are **Martha L. Addy,** assistant professor in education, **Betty J. Grice,** college health nurse, and **Arta F. Lawrence,** acting college librarian. . . . **Merrill F. Hartshorn,** instructor in social sciences at Ashland College, Ashland, Wis., has been elected executive secretary of the National Council for the Social Studies with headquarters in the NEA Building, Washington, D. C. He succeeds **Wilbur F. Murra** who resigned to join the editorial staff of Civic Education Service in Washington, D. C. . . . **Harold Rugg** is the new editor of *Frontiers of Democracy,* formerly under the editorship of **William H. Kilpatrick** and **James L. Hymes, Jr.** . . . **Robert Stearns,** president of the University of Colorado, has been granted a leave of absence to serve abroad as specialist in the education of men serving in the army air forces. . . . Recently elected officers of the Educational Press Association of America are: President, **Lawrence W. Prakken,** editor, the *Education Digest;* vice-president, **Bernice D. Gestie,** managing editor, *Minnesota Journal of Education;* secretary-treasurer, **Lyle Ashby,** *Journal of the National Education Association;* and members of the executive committee, **C. O. Wright,** editor, *Kansas Teacher,* and **Eva Grant,** editor, *National Parent-Teacher.*

WITH the shelving by the Senate of the bill to provide federal financial aid to the states for education, a temporary climax has been reached in the quarter of a century fight to provide some semblance of equality of educational opportunity among the states. A clever parliamentary ruse by Senator Langer of North Dakota led to the bill's recommit-

ment to the Senate Committee on Education and Labor. Proponents of the bill point out that considerable gain was made in the mere fact of bringing the measure to the floor of the Senate where federal aid, in the words of Senator Barkley, finally "got its day in court." The bill was considered first on October 12 and debate continued until October 20 when Langer's amendment was passed by the very close margin of 40-37. This amendment read as follows: "Provided, that there be no discrimination in the administration of the benefits and appropriations made under the respective provisions of this Act or in the state funds supplemented thereby on account of race, creed, or color." The passage of this amendment lost the bill the support of the Southern senators with the result that it was recommitted by a vote of 53-26. A similar bill is now before the House of Representatives Committee on Education but hearings have not been scheduled as yet.

A HIGH-SCHOOL textbook on labor, sponsored by the state and with its copyright in the name of the People of the State of New York, has just come off the printing presses. Entitled, *The American Story of Industrial and Labor Relations,* the book was conceived by the Ives Committee on Industrial and Labor Conditions and was prepared by William B. Groat, Jr., counsel to the Committee. The use of the book, already given informal approval by the Board of Regents, will be optional with the local school systems.

THE Model Aircraft Project, under which 500,000 model planes constructed by students enroled in shop courses in the public schools are being used to teach Army and Navy personnel to identify Axis and Allied planes, will be terminated December 31, 1943, on a national basis. After this time, according to J. C. Wright, Assistant U. S. Commissioner for Vocational Education, no more Navy certificates may be awarded nor will C.O.D. shipments of model planes be accepted at official centers. This will not, however, terminate the work in schools which are urged to supply local Army and Navy and civilian-defense needs.

HIGH schools teaching preflight aeronautics will receive 5,000 instructional instrument panels of trainer planes. A list of those schools which should receive the panels is being prepared by State Victory Corps directors through the cooperation of the Navy Bureau of Aeronautics.

THE cooperation of the schools has been asked by U. S. Commissioner of Education John Studebaker to join in the nationwide campaign to save food. School administrators and teachers are urged to publicize the campaign and enlist the wholehearted support of the students.

APTITUDE tests will be used more extensively for awarding entrance scholarships for the College of the University of Chicago, it has been announced by Dean Aaron J. Brumbaugh, chairman of the scholarship committee. This new scholarship procedure will apply to all students desiring scholarships instead of only those competing for "prize scholarships" as was formerly the case. All students seeking a scholarship must apply for admission to the University of Chicago, and must be in the top 10 percent of their high-school classes. The first competitive tests under the new plan will be given to qualified high-school students or graduates on December 4. Applications for taking the tests must be obtained no later than November 15. More than 100 regular scholarships as well as an undetermined number of special scholarships will be awarded. Half of the scholarships are for high schools who wish to take advantage of the "Chicago Plan" which provides for college education to start at the conventional junior grades in high school.

TEACHERS in New York City may now receive full credit which will count toward annual salary increments for two courses based on radio programs, it was announced by James Rowland Angell, NBC public service counsellor. The programs are "Lands of the Free" and "Music of the New World," both presentations of the NBC Inter-American University of the Air. Recognition for these courses comes after a six-month experimental period during which the courses were accredited as approved In-Service courses for teachers but without credit. The NBC University of the Air programs will be supplemented by teacher visits to NBC's Radio City studios.

PHYSICAL *Fitness through Health Education for the Victory Corps* and a *Handbook on Physical Fitness for Students in Colleges and Universities* are two new manuals now available through the U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. Both may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., the former at a cost of 20 cents, the latter at 25 cents.

FOUNTAIN pens, pen nibs, and pencils will be available in somewhat greater number now as the result of a WPB ruling permitting manufacturers to increase their production of these items. Restrictive controls have been placed on the production and distribution of photographic and projection equipment, accessories, and parts because of the limited amount of scarce materials available. Educational institutions, however, are given special consideration. Form WPB-1319 should be used when seeking this type of equipment.

A NEW bulletin, entitled *The United States Junior Citizens Service Corps* is now available, explaining the work of this group of young people under 16 who may actively participate in civilian-defense work. The bulletin was issued by the U. S. Office of Civilian Defense and may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., for five cents.

NEW *Songs for Schools at War* has been prepared in cooperation with the Music Educators National Conference for use by music teachers and supervisors. This is the second edition of songs writen by and for school children and contains a different assortment from last year's. Copies may be obtained from the Music Educators National Conference, 64 East Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, Ill.

PI LAMBDA THETA, national association of women in education, announces two awards for research on "Professional Problems of Women." From the Ella Victoria Dobbs Fellowship, two awards of $400 each will be granted on or before September 15, 1944, for significant research studies on the subject. The contest is open to any individual interested in the topic. May Seagoe, University of California at Los Angeles, is the chairman of the committee.

AN annual $2000 fellowship in safety education will be awarded by New York University, in memory of the late Albert W. Whitney, pioneer safety educator, to a public- or private-school teacher who distinguishes himself in this field. The grant is designed to enable the recipient to do graduate work in the Center for Safety Education of the University's Division of General Education.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

November 26-27, Forty-third Annual Convention, Central Association of Mathematics and Science Teachers, Chicago, Ill.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

December 15-17, Thirty-seventh Convention of the American Vocational Association, Chicago, Ill.

December 28-29, Fifty-ninth Annual Holiday Conference of the New York State Association of Secondary-School Principals, Syracuse, N. Y.

January 18-20, American Association of Junior Colleges, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Regional wartime conferences of the American Association of School Administrators:

January 10-12, Seattle, Wash.
February 15-17, Atlanta, Ga.
February 22-24, New York, N.Y.
February 28-March 1, Chicago, Ill.
March 8-10, Kansas City, Mo.

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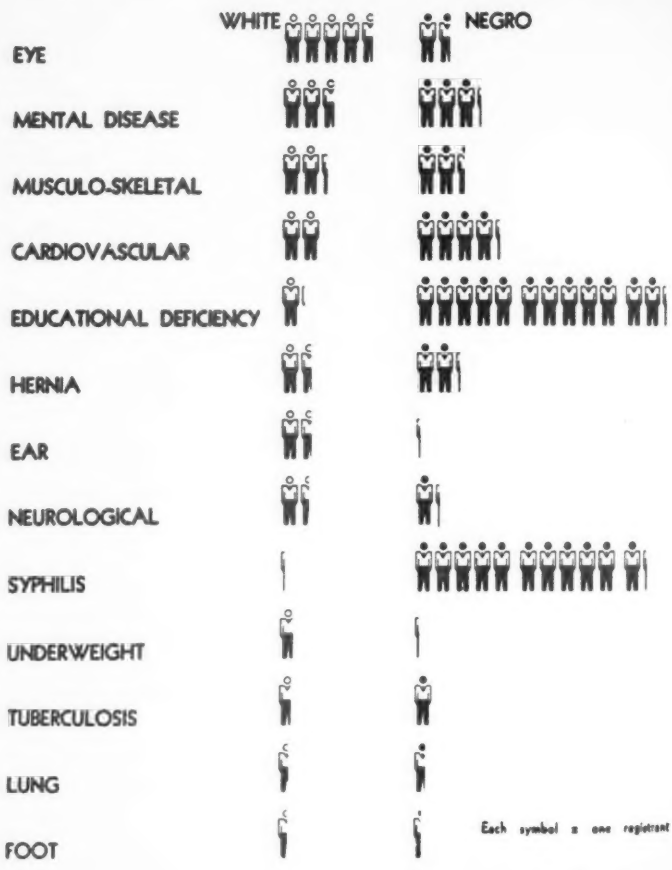

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